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ABSTRACT

Developing Student Self-Discipline in Schools and Classrooms is a program designed for teachers, counselors, administrators, educational decision-makers and other school personnel who are concerned about the disruptive effect of discipline problems in many schools today. The course offers a repertoire of proven techniques and skills useful for creating a climate of self-discipline within the school, including role-playing, goal definition, reinforcement, exemplary instruction, personal assertion, and interpersonal influencing. The course is based on the philosophy that school discipline problems are rooted in the way that adults operate with one another and with students, and in the way the school is organized as a social system. Therefore, discipline problems cannot be significantly reduced by concentrating only on the misdeeds of individual students. Attention must be focused on establishing long-range continuing habits of behavior that teach and sustain self-discipline among all members of the school. (Author/JK)

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Developing Schools That Teach

Self Discipline

A SEMINAR DEVELOPED BY

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DEVELOPING SCHOOLS THAT TEACH SELF-DISCIPLINE

Purpose

Developing Student Self Discipline in Schools and Classrooms is designed for teachers, counselors, administrators, educational decision makers, and other school personnel who are concerned about the disruptive effect (on both educators and students) of discipline problems in many schools today. The course offers participants some proven procedures for promoting and maintaining self discipline in students.

The instructors employ a variety of methods -- role playing, goal definition, reinforcement, exemplary instruction, personal assertion, and interpersonal influencing -- that will provide participants with a repertoire of techniques and skills useful for creating a climate of self discipline within the school and classroom setting. Educators from the same school who participate in the course as a team will find the experience especially effective.

Basic Philosophy

The majority of school discipline problems are rooted in the way that adults operate with one another and with students and in the way the school is organized as a social system. Therefore, discipline problems cannot be significantly reduced by concentrating only on the misdeeds of individual students. Rather, there is much to be gained by developing new relationships in a school community in which every member plays a significant, responsible, and respected part. The course is designed to help faculty members develop skills for creating and participating in such a learning environment. Although help is provided for dealing with the everyday routine discipline incidents that plague classrooms and schools, focus is upon establishing long-range, continuing <u>habits of behavior</u> that teach and sustain self discipline among all members of the school.

DEFINITIONS OF DISCIPLINE

DISCIPLINE, dis'si-plin, n. [L. disciplina, from discipulus, a disciple, from disco, to learn.] Prompt and willing obedience to the orders of superiors; behavior in accordance with the rules (as of an organization); behavior (as of students or soldiers) regarded in terms of its conformity with ideal or actual codes or sets of rules; control gained by enforcing obedience or order (as in a school or army); punishment by one in authority with a view to correction or training; training or experience that corrects, molds, strengthens, or perfects the mental faculties or moral character.

DISCIPLINE, dis'si-plin, n. [L. disciplina, from discipulus, a disciple, from disco, to learn.] orderly conduct; conduct in accordance with a self-imposed rule or set of rules; self-control, self-restraint; systematic, willing, and purposeful attention to the performance of assigned tasks.

Webster's Third New International Dictionary of the English Language (unabridged). Springfield, Mass.: G & C Merriam Company, 1961.

The essence of discipline is the same as education: to achieve a relationship between the teacher and the student in which the teacher can be as sensitive to the student's needs as he is able and so that he can react to those needs unhampered by his own emotional development.

Abraham Caplan

DISCIPLINE is the ability to identify the character of a circumstance or situation, to determine ones most constructive role in it, to carry out that role directly, to sustain it as long as necessary, and to learn from the consequences of ones actions. Such skill is learned; it is taught best by people who are willing to demonstrate it in their own lives.

William W. Wayson, Improved Discipline for Effective Education (in process), 1976

Prepared by William W. Wayson, 1976

Developing Discipline with Quality Schools

by
William W. Wayson and Gay Su Pinnell

Discipline is the ability to choose and maintain a constructive role in a situation.

Being disciplined is a part of being educated, and being self-disciplined is the highest form of preparation for effective citizenship.

Discipline is learned; therefore, it can be taught. It is a major goal of education, best taught when it is consciously recognized as integral to the education life within a school.

There are two basic theories of discipline based on the view of students as essentially bad or good. Although few people think students are all bad or all good, approaches to school discipline tend to fall on one or the other side of the question. Those who think people are bad will advocate programs in which discipline is imposed by outside authorities in order to control, contain, or considerably change students from "undisciplined" into "civilized" persons. In those cases, school discipline policies are lists of rules for controlling students. Discipline is separated from education; it is enforced; and it is equated with punishment. Adults maintain constant vigilance against rule infractions and present students with punishments for any infractions that are discovered. Students learn how to escape discovery.

Those who believe people to be essentially good, choose programs that capitalize upon students' ideas, skills, and aspirations to help them learn ways to solve problems in their lives. They seek ways to teach self-discipline, and their methods reflect trust in school personnel, students, and parents to adopt effective solutions to problems in the school. While some educators see discipline as something done in order to get to the curriculum, these educators see discipline as part of the curriculum.

Those who see people as essentially bad accuse the others of being "Pollyannic" and "permissive" and in turn find themselves charged with being "dictators," "bureaucrats," or "conservatives." Both groups can carry their ideas to extremes, particularly when they are arguing about vague, general concepts and not about specific cases. Actually, effective discipline programs reflect some of both assumptions and adapt them to individual cases.

For the purposes of this paper, discipline is the ability to size up a situation and to see what needs to be done: to see several ways of behaving in the situation; to choose one of them; and to learn from what happens. Discipline is learned and can be taught. School programs that strive to teach self-discipline are not permissive, nor are they without goals or direction. Effective programs require close attention to goals and force the educator to take great care to see that the methods employed are conducive to the goals that are sought. The measure of success is whether students conduct themselves in a productive way when there is no authority present to catch or correct them.

THE PROBLEM IN PERSPECTIVE

Since Cain and Abel, parents have worried about disciplining their children, and even in the Golden Age of Greece Socrates spoke against the undisciplined young of the city. The worry is antique, but the anxiety has not dulled for modern parents and teachers.

Today, laypersons and educators perceive the lack of discipline as a problem in public schools. According to seven of the last eight "Annual Gallup Polls of the Public's Attitudes Toward the Public Schools" the American public considers "lack of discipline" the biggest problem for public schools. The October, 1976, poll showed that 22 percent of the respondents were concerned about discipline—seven percent more than the second-place concern. Responding to related questions, 50 percent reported that "enforcing stricter discipline" would do the most to improve the quality of public education; 49 percent felt that test scores had declined because "society is becoming too permissive"; 47 percent said they would like to serve on a committee working on "discipline and related problems"; and the majority reported "the ability to discipline, to be firm and fair" as the second most desirable trait teachers could have.

Teachers also show anxiety about discipline. Ohio State University researchers Donald Cruickshank and Betty Myers, studying teachers' typical problems, report that "discipline and control" are considered major problems by teachers in all kinds of schools and communities, in all types of classes, and across all levels of age and preparation.

Clearly, some kind of problem exists. But the expressed concerns do not define the problem. In fact, discipline has been discussed in a most undisciplined fashion in recent years. Discipline can be improved more easily if some objective terms are used, and if emotional issues are clarified. Several points are important:

1. Small but annoying behaviors are the major problems of school discipline.
2. Violent behavior is a very minor part of school life.
3. Defining vague terms and separating serious from trivial behaviors are very important for fair discipline.
4. Differing attitudes among administrators, teachers, parents, and students lead to confusion, misunderstanding, and sometimes greater discipline problems.
5. Desegregating schools have particular discipline problems, mostly derived from the staff's lack of familiarity with new students and their "style".

Objective studies consistently show that the major discipline problems in public schools are small but annoying things. For example, a study by Coates and Thoreson (1976) summarizes some problems as seen by teachers:

. . . children chewing gum, getting out of seats and walking around the room; coming to school without homework; talking and making noise while the teacher is trying to teach; making constant comments; running out of the classroom.

. . . a boy saying, "I won't do it" when teacher gives instructions; students not paying attention as teacher gives directions; student becoming belligerent in response to corrections; two students fighting over a basketball.

Assistant principals from junior and senior high schools in a large city which was desegregated several years ago verified this position. They felt harassed when teachers would send them trivial discipline problems such as cutting classes, tardiness, truancy, and not doing homework. Other violations such as being rude to teachers, not having an excuse for being in the hall, and fighting occurred with much less frequency.

Violence and vandalism in schools have consistently made the headlines, but they form a very minor portion of daily discipline problems even in large urban high schools. Only two percent of the respondents in the 1976 Gallup Report listed "violence and crime" as a major concern for their local schools. The National Education Association's (NEA) recent emphasis upon ridding schools of violence is hardly borne out by its own membership. Only three percent of a nationwide sample of teachers questioned in 1974 reported any sort of physical attack by a student; 76.8 percent of the sample said that violence was not a problem in their schools; and 96.8 percent felt it was not a major problem.

Confusing discipline problems with criminal behaviors tends to distort the issues for educators as well as the public. It often leads to policies out of proportion to real problems; it creates unnecessary anxiety among parents and educators; it undermines public confidence in the schools; and—above all—it prevents teachers, administrators, and school boards from taking sensible, educationally-sound steps to reduce the number and intensity of discipline problems.

Separating serious offenses from the trivial-but-aggravating is difficult but crucial for taking fair disciplinary actions. For example, participants in a national conference on discipline felt that the following behaviors warranted "extreme disciplinary measures": disrespect, excessive tardiness, disobedience, verbal abuse, forgery, off school grounds without permission, snowballing, dress extremes, any action socially unacceptable based on local mores, a generally negative attitude about the school community, and poor response to teacher direction. Such terms are vague and are therefore subject to abuse.

For example, some people call for extreme measures against "disrespect" until they discover that disrespect is inferred from such behaviors as:

Asking too many questions.
Wearing your hat in the hallway.
Not looking at me when I'm talking.
Rolling your eyes at me.
Sighing.
Wearing your hair in braids (boy).
Saying "yeah" or "yes" instead of "yes, sir."

Whether such actions should be considered offenses warranting extreme action is doubtful. Some of the behaviors reflect cultural differences. Others are simply trivial. Failure to be clear about what is meant by such terms as "disrespect" can lead to misdirected and counter-productive practices by school staffs.

Problems emerge when defining a general set of rules for a school because teachers, parents, administrators, and students often have different ideas about appropriate behavior. Individual values and levels of tolerance affect judgments made by teachers and administrators. What irritates or appalls one teacher may seem normal to another. For example, talking during work periods may not be noticed by one teacher but may bother another. The principal may be upset by conversational groups in the hallway while teachers enjoy talking with those groups. Parents may become unhappy when school standards are either more or less rigid than those imposed at home.

Cultural values and differences influence judgments about appropriate school behavior. Children who come from a culture different from that which dominates the school situation may have special difficulties in understanding or fulfilling expectations. For example, in some cultures, respect is signified by looking straight into the eyes of the other person, but in some black and Hispanic cultures, respect is shown by looking down or away. Such differences often cause hostility and lead to highly unfair disciplinary actions.

School personnel, even in the same school, differ (as experts do) on what to do about discipline problems. Often, little effort is made to truly reconcile differences. Creating a program which considers the whole school as an environment for teaching self-discipline depends upon the staff learning to respect and listen to each other, to be open to new learning, to work out mechanisms for solving problems, and to help rather than judge one another.

Schools often are too separated from parents and the community to create the unified approach that is best for achieving good discipline in a school. Bureaucratic barriers and economic differences inhibit communication and heighten distrust. Teachers think that parents don't care or won't discipline their kids while parents think that teachers don't care or show no interest in individual children. Relationships must promote trust and communication if an effective discipline program is to be implemented.

Discipline is a particularly acute issue in newly desegregated schools. Many educators, parents, and community members alike have expectations that black children cause discipline problems. The expectation is related to stereotypes that black children are violent. The trait has been attributed at one time or another to most groups who have large numbers who live at or near the poverty level. For example, many Americans also expect Appalachians to be hostile, sullen, and violent. Filled with such expectations, teachers and parents are ready to believe the worst about black students (or Appalachians) and are particularly subject to rumors, to misrepresented statistics about the potentiality of violence, and to exaggerated concerns about safety in the schools.

On the job, teachers or principals, superintendents or professors are likely to be fearful of black students. They have less confidence in their own capabilities to cope with real or expected misbehavior, hence they let students get away with infractions, or they see misbehavior when there is none. They frequently take actions that escalate small problems into large ones. Thus, the desegregated school is likely to get an undeserved image of undisciplined behavior or is

likely to experience an increase in disruptive behavior because of the staff's expectation of student behavior.

School teachers and administrators who wish to avoid problems in newly desegregated situations should be aware of ten "tension-breeding factors" listed by Ben Holman, Director, Community Relations Service, U.S. Justice Department, in his article "Dealing with Racial Conflicts in School" (NASSP Bulletin, May, 1975):

1. impediments to minority participation in extracurricular activities.
2. inappropriate placement of minority students in special education classes.
3. counseling practices that under-value the potential of minority students.
4. lack of minority representation in student government or in traditional leadership or high status positions.
5. overly restrictive student dress and grooming codes.
6. unequal application of disciplinary measures.
7. lack of a grievance mechanism that students—particularly minority students—are free to use.
8. classes that are largely segregated—whether resulting from homogeneous grouping, student course selection, or other reasons.
9. self-segregation or exclusionary practices among students.
10. differing teacher attitudes—and even body language—toward majority and minority students, whether induced by fear, prejudice, or over-compensation.

The tendency to view all schools, all problems, and all students as being the same undermines sound discipline. Coping with and preventing discipline problems requires awareness that each person, each classroom, and each school is unique. Each has a "personality" for which no single answer, technique, or method represents the most effective approach. A method which achieves little in one situation may be highly successful in another or at another time. General knowledge of alternatives and their likely effects is a start, but teachers and other school personnel must approach their situation with commitment to work with individuals and to develop procedures which are implemented and evaluated in relation to individual needs and perceptions.

CREATING SCHOOLS THAT TEACH SELF-DISCIPLINE

Daily life within the school teaches discipline or lack of discipline. The crucial decisions about school discipline have to be made by principals and teachers at the scene. No law or policy will be effective unless local staffs are willing and able to make it effective. While boards of education and state institutions may formulate policy concerning student discipline, day-to-day decisions made by teachers, custodians, cafeteria staff, and other personnel in the school establish and perpetuate the disciplinary climate. The many schools from all types of areas who do have educationally-sound, humanely-effective discipline programs are adequate proof that such programs can be achieved.

In those schools that seem to have the best discipline, faculty members—or a significant number of them—consciously strive to create school practices that teach students to think for themselves, to accept responsibility for themselves and for life within the school, and to behave appropriately even when adults or rules are absent.

In the rush to control disruptive behavior, resources can be needlessly wasted in trying to change or dominate students. Much more is to be gained by changing elements in the school system that cause disruptive behaviors. At least four out of every five disruptions (Wayson's Rule of Thumb) are the result of some disfunction in the way the school or the classroom runs. Most readers can remember school practices that made them angry and resentful, unfair treatment that still hurts many years after graduation, teachers who could be "played off" against one another, teachers with "hang-ups" who could be frightened or manipulated, or classes so boring that "you had to do something to liven them up." Life for both faculty and students is more enjoyable and productive if those disfunctions are changed or removed. The following illustrations will help to clarify how school life can cause disruptive behavior:

1. Teachers often feel they have no say about the policies or the curriculum handed down to them. They may resent those policies and either "slack off" on the job or withdraw into their classrooms and take no responsibility for what occurs anywhere else in the school or on school premises.

2. School organization and schedules tend to isolate teachers from one another. Teachers often form "camps" and encourage student misbehavior by childishly bickering among departments or between wings, floors, or grade levels.

3. Every time the bell rings or the intercom blares a message, classrooms are disrupted for the next ten to twenty minutes.

4. The school faculty has never agreed upon what "running in the hall" means; so, some punish students for walking swiftly while others permit near-foot-races to go on. The staff splits on the question and spends the year passing rumors about the "sluffers" and the "slavedrivers" in their midst. "Hall duty" is increased and resentment follows. Most students walk; others go as fast as "the law allows."

5. No one ever told the vice-principal that he/she did not have to meet every demand by a teacher, a parent, or the downtown office; no college class taught how to deal with conflicting expectations in productive ways. So, the vice-principal, trying to please, makes enemies of everyone while nursing ulcers because of the "bad" things he/she feels compelled to do to students.

6. No one in the school sees the playground as a learning place—just an extra nuisance which gets neglected. No one feels responsible for the area; the strongest kids dominate and their values determine what other

students learn about how to behave and survive on the playground.

7. Everyone treats the bus driver as someone to get the kids to school and as an unpleasant interruption in the otherwise smooth schedule of the school. So, the driver takes it out on the students by being cold and unfriendly. Students retaliate with pranks and vandalism. The same cycle occurs with the custodial staff.

Discipline in a school is influenced strongly by the kinds of people who teach there, by the way those people relate to one another and to the problems within the school, by the way school policies and procedures treat both adults and students, and by the traditions and habits that govern what people do in the school. Seven aspects of the school are very important in teaching either good or poor discipline: (1) the way people work together to solve problems or to make decisions about how the school operates; (2) the way authority is distributed and used in the school; (3) the way rules are stated, understood and enforced; (4) the quality, layout, and utilization of the building and the grounds; (5) relationships with parents and the surrounding community; (6) the way in which personal problems are handled; and (7) the formal curriculum and the style of instruction.

The quality of both discipline and academic achievement is closely related to one or more of those influences. They all combine to make a "living curriculum" that teaches students and school personnel "how to behave around here." To the degree that they cause the school to be disruption-prone they must be fundamentally changed or disruptions will continue, no matter what may be done to individual students who are disruptive. Improving discipline can be accomplished best by examining those parts of school life and by improving them.

The discussion does not blame schools for poor discipline. No sane school person purposely tries to teach students misbehavior; but poor training experiences or lack of training, poor school organization, bad schedules, or inadequate curriculum cause many teachers and administrators unknowingly to teach poor discipline every day.

SCHOOL DISCIPLINE AND STUDENT RIGHTS

Many things that children learn about how to live as citizens are learned in their daily school life. Discipline is one thing that is learned in the hallways, offices, cafeterias, playgrounds, and classrooms of schools. Another important principle that may be learned in every interaction in the school environment is that this is a nation governed by the belief that all people have certain "inalienable" rights which cannot be violated by any arm of government. It is not simply a concept to study, but an element to be practiced in school life. If no rights are respected by the school, an opportunity is lost to teach how to respect those rights in later life. At the same time, failure to apply rights can undermine a sense of fairness in the school and can be disruptive. A concern for rights also presents the opportunity to establish that people have responsibilities. The protection of rights is a compelling motive for being disciplined.

Respect for the rights of others is a central concern of American citizenship and is therefore a valuable element for life in the school setting. However, the law, and not curriculum guides, judges and not educators, have made student rights a part of life in Ohio schools in the past decade. Many of those who feel that discipline depends upon externally-imposed order have resisted the emphasis on rights. They feel threatened and believe the concern for student rights has undermined their ability to control students and maintain order. For those oriented to discipline as an element of the school environment and the product of fair treatment, student rights are a complement. Regardless of one's posture, student rights is now an important element of public education and an important dimension of discipline.

In Loco Parentis

School officials have been able to do almost anything "reasonable" to maintain order. Until recently, the prevailing legal principle was that school boards and their employees were acting in loco parentis (in place of the parent) and could do nearly anything that parents could do. When parental wishes conflicted with the school's position, the courts were likely to say that the state's needs outweighed those of the parent, and the school's power was determined in some cases to be greater than the parent.

Because of abuses of that authority, combined with the fact that school authorities often did not display the intention to act on the child's behalf that would be displayed by a real parent, courts and legislatures are now less likely to allow school officials to act as unquestioned parents. The Ohio Department of Education presents the following guideline in its handbook, *Rights and Responsibilities: Administrative Guidelines* (1971):

> The concept that the school stands in loco parentis is at best tenuous and partially misleading. To stand in loco parentis, one must assume the full duties, responsibilities and obligations of a parent toward a minor. School teachers and administrators obviously do not support the children in their care, nor do they provide most of the tangible and intangible necessities and securities that the child finds in his home. In fact, school authorities stand in loco parentis only to the degree that they may act somewhat like a parent does only some of the time for the purpose of maintaining order in the educational system. No one would saddle school authorities with the full duties of parents to care for their children until the end of minority. Thus, it is misleading to term one narrow function of the school—that is, the disciplinary function—as being a function totally representative of the in loco parentis concept. In loco parentis should not, then, be the basis for defining parent-school relationships.

New Court Cases Affirm Constitutional Rights*

Increasingly, schools are required to grant students various constitutional rights set forth in the Bill of Rights. The following decisions from the United States Supreme Court have set new legal standards that may improve the chances for educators to teach effective, self-disciplined citizenship.

The United States Supreme Court in its 1969 ruling on *Tinker v. Des Moines Independent School District* declared that the First Amendment protects students' rights to free speech, including symbolic speech such as wearing armbands and buttons. The Court said,

> It can hardly be argued that either students or teachers shed their constitutional rights to freedom of speech or expression at the schoolhouse gate.

Quoting from the Barnette case (1943), which gave students the right not to say the Pledge of Allegiance, the judges expressed the educational value of granting rights to students. The task of educating young people for citizenship:

> is reason for scrupulous protection of constitutional freedoms of the individual if we are not to strangle the free mind at its source and teach youth to discount important principles of our government as mere platitudes.

It also presented a strong educational argument for assuring free speech in schools and classrooms:

> . . . students may not be regarded as closed-circuit recipients of only that which the State chooses to communicate. They may not be confined to the expression of those sentiments that are officially approved. In the absence of a specific showing of constitutionally valid reasons to regulate their speech, students are entitled to freedom of expression of their views . . .

The Court declared that school officials could limit student expression in some cases. Any student conduct in or out of class which,

> materially disrupts classwork or involves substantial disorder or invasion of the rights of others is, of course, not immunized by the constitutional guarantee of freedom of speech.

Nevertheless, any limitation imposed by school officials has to be administered with due process which includes giving notice and reasons to the student and granting opportunity for the student to present his or her side of the issue. School officials would have to have clear evidence that the banned speech (or symbols) would "materially and substantially interfere" with school activities. But school officials could not stifle free expression merely because they feared a disturbance:

> undifferentiated fear or apprehension of disturbance is not enough to overcome the right to freedom of expression . . . Any departure from absolute regimentation may cause trouble. Any variation from the majority's opinion may inspire fear. Any word . . . that deviates from the views of another person may start an argument or cause a disturbance. But our Constitution says we must take this risk; . . . It is this kind of openness . . . that is the basis of our national strength and of the independence and vigor of Americans . . .

Goss v. Lopez, a case arising in the Columbus Public Schools, was decided by the United States Supreme Court in 1975. The Court determined that students are entitled to due process prior to suspension or expulsion from school because students cannot be arbitrarily deprived of the education guaranteed by the Ohio Constitution. Furthermore, because a student's name, reputation, and future employment opportunities could be harmed by suspensions they must not be used arbitrarily.

> Having chosen to extend the right to an education . . . Ohio may not withdraw that right on grounds of misconduct (without) fundamentally fair procedures to determine whether the misconduct has occurred.
>
> 'Where a person's good name, reputation, honor, or integrity is at stake because of what the government is doing to him,' the minimal requirements of the (due process) clause must be satisfied . . .

The Court declared that a short-term suspension (from one to ten days) was not a small matter:

> . . . total exclusion from the educational process for more than a trivial period, and certainly if the suspension is for ten days, is a serious event . . .

The minimum due process procedures required for short-term suspension are: (1) the student is entitled to an oral or written notice of the charges and (2) if the student denies those charges, he or she is entitled to an explanation of the evidence and an opportunity to present his/her side of the story. Those procedures should be provided before any suspension, preferably before the student is found guilty, unless the student's presence "poses a continuing danger to persons or property or an ongoing threat of disrupting the academic process . . ." In the latter event, the student may be immediately removed, but the notice and "rudimentary hearing" should follow as soon "as practicable." The due process requirements vary with the severity of the punishment. For short-term suspensions the school officials are not required to permit the student to have a lawyer or to cross-examine witnesses, though they may choose to do so. However, more formal procedures are needed for "larger suspensions or expulsions for the remainder of the school term, or permanently . . ."

The Supreme Court decided *Wood v. Strickland* on the same day as *Goss*. The basic decision was that, in some circumstances, school board members may be sued for damages if they violate a student's constitutional rights while administering discipline:

> . . . in the specific context of school discipline, we hold that a school board member is not immune from liability for damages under (the Civil Rights Act of 1871) if he knew or reasonably should have known that the action he took within his sphere or official responsibility would violate the constitutional rights of the students affected, or if he took the action with the malicious intention to cause a deprivation of constitutional rights or other injury . . .

Two facts have to be established before the student can receive monetary damages: the student must have a clearly established constitutional right, and the board (or, presumably other school personnel acting with the board's knowledge or under its direction) must have violated those rights. Damages could only be obtained if:

> . . . the school board member has acted with such an impermissible motivation or with such disregard of

*The authors wish to acknowledge the assistance of Thomas Lasley, doctoral candidate at Ohio State, for his assistance in gathering this information.

the student's clearly established constitutional rights that his action cannot reasonably be characterized as being in good faith.

The board member may not plead ignorance.

> . . . an act violating a student's constitutional rights can be no more justified by ignorance or disregard to settled, indisputable law on the part of one entrusted with supervision of students' daily lives than by the presence of actual malice . . .
>
> . . . a school board member who has voluntarily undertaken the task of supervising the operation of the school and the activities of the students, must be held to a standard of conduct based not only on permissible intentions, but also on knowledge of the basic, unquestioned constitutional rights of his charges.

In 1977 the Supreme Court ruled in the *Ingraham v. Wright* case that the Eighth Amendment of the Bill of Rights which prohibits cruel and unusual punishments, "does not apply to the paddling of children as a means of maintaining discipline in public schools." According to the Court, "in view of the low incidence of abuse, the openness of our schools, and the common law safeguards that already exist," the Fourteenth Amendment does not require due process beyond that "satisfied by Florida's preservation of common law constraints and remedies." Throughout the decision, the Court stressed that:

> The prevalent rule in this country today (allows) such force as a teacher or administrator 'reasonably believes to be necessary for (the child's) proper control, training, or education' . . . To the extent that the force is excessive or unreasonable, the educator in virtually all States is subject to possible civil and criminal liability.

And it stated the tests for "reasonableness".

> All of the circumstances are to be taken into account in determining whether the punishment is reasonable in a particular case. Among the most important considerations are the seriousness of the offense, the attitude and past behavior of the child, the nature and severity of the punishment, the age and strength of the child, and the availability of less severe but equally effective means of discipline.

Pointing out that 21 states have authorized the moderate use of corporal punishment and two have outlawed it altogether, the Court also indicated that it believed that the child is protected against unreasonable corporal punishment in all states.

Four judges disagreed on grounds that the decision on the Eighth Amendment was too broad and that a case of corporal punishment might be cruel enough to fall under its prohibition. They also doubted that states provide enough protection against unreasonable punishment if they haven't granted damages to students who were either punished unreasonably or when they were not guilty, or if they allowed school officials to punish before hearing the student's version of what happened.

Maintaining Rights in Schools

School policies and practices should grant and protect more rights than the courts do. Court-ordered requirements fall short of what is necessary for effective education. In the *Goss* decision, the Court states that the law requires "less (due process) than a fair-minded principal would impose upon himself." In the *Ingraham* decision, the Court noted that "elimination or curtailment of corporal punishment would be welcomed by many as a social advance," even though such punishment is not unconstitutional. Many decisions dealing with dress codes or hair length show amusement if not annoyance that any officials would make mountains out of such molehills, even when the Court supports the officials' actions.

The first prerequisite for having rights is to know about them. The mere existence of a law does not mean that students or any other persons will receive the right. Local officials may not know that the law exists. They may interpret it differently from other persons. They may not agree with the law and may refuse to implement it.

Student groups or community groups can do a lot to preserve rights and to improve educational opportunities for many students by publishing handbooks which help students and others know their rights. Handbooks might show what laws and what local policies affect those rights. They should also tell how students can get their rights—who to see, what phone numbers to call, where to get legally and educationally sound advice.

Many agencies have published such handbooks. *The Student Rights Handbook for Dayton, Ohio*, prepared by the Center for the Study of Student Citizenship, Rights and Responsibilities and published by the Institute for Research and Development in Urban Areas at Central State University in Wilberforce, Ohio, is one such example. Another is the Ohio Education Department's publication, *Rights and Responsibilities: Administrator Guidelines*. The Ohio School Board's Association also has published a handy guide entitled *Student Due Process: What You Need to Know and Do*.

Many schools are teaching law both in elementary and high school classes. Teaching student rights and responsibilities is excellent content for social studies classes. The curriculum can be enhanced if the social relationships within the school are used as live case studies and laboratories for teaching and practicing American democracy.

Developing a discipline code or revising an existing one is one of the most effective ways to promote the faculty and student agreement which is the best basis for a well-disciplined school.

Discipline Codes*

How to treat misbehaving students has been one focus for court decisions regarding student rights. In addition to due process requirements, courts have called for written codes as one way to protect students from arbitrary, prejudicial, and unfair treatment.

Discipline codes are useful—perhaps even vital—for good education in American schools; however, they can be so only if their creators give special care to their content. Legal mandates must be balanced with actions having educational value. An explicit code is crucial, but it must not be inflexible. There must be room to consider individual circumstances as legislatures have allowed in criminal proceedings. A code loses effectiveness if it prescribes rigid formulas and provides no means for adapting consequences to individual circumstances.

A number of model codes have been developed which attempt to provide the fair treatment needed for a just code.

**The entire section on discipline codes was prepared by William Wayson who is solely responsible for its contents.*

A Phi Delta Kappa Task Force developed a "Model Student Code" (*Phi Delta Kappan*, December, 1974) which was modified slightly and included in the *School Suspensions* report by the Children's Defense Fund as a "Sample Discipline Code." That Code takes into account the rights of children as they have been established to date by the U. S. Supreme Court and other lower courts. It has influenced many school policies created in response to *Goss* and *Strickland* or in response to federal requirements that each district should have a published code.

However, the PDK code is not an exemplary discipline code. It meets the requirements of law but not the requirements for becoming an educational tool whose administration could teach students and teachers to exercise self-discipline. A complete code would include several additions:

1. Items should include the responsibility for school officials to set a limit upon the length of suspension and to permit the student to return to school whether or not a parent comes to school.
2. The code should clarify that suspension is not the automatic consequence of prohibited behaviors, though it may be a possible consequence.
3. A new section guaranteeing the right to voluntary transfer to another school without prejudice and within minimal procedural guidelines should be established.
4. Each section describing hearing procedures should include the right to examine evidence and should spell out what steps would be taken if school officials or other adults were found to be in error.
5. The code should assure staff development and elimination of conditions causing discipline problems, including a section requiring school staffs to devise means to systematically identify problems in their buildings and among their staffs which might contribute to discipline problems, and to report annually upon the procedures adopted to correct those problems and with what success.
6. A code should have sections on maintaining normal classroom discipline, providing safeguards against humiliation or other miseducational practices, and assuring assistance to teachers who need personal or professional help to develop educational processes for maintaining necessary controls in the classroom.

The proposed code might also outline student and faculty rights such as the Bill of Rights adopted by the Metropolitan School of Columbus, Ohio, and used in several schools as a basis for promoting an effective learning atmosphere through shared responsibility for all persons (staff and students alike) in the school community. It is useful only if used for dealing with disruptive behavior and only if it is applied equally to adults and students.

The booklet, *Rights and Responsibilities: Administrative Guidelines* published by the Ohio Department of Education contains sound advice, basic legal principles, and guidelines that generally should lead to a positive school atmosphere. The Department does not try to spell out a comprehensive program dealing with the range of "more-than-annoying" discipline problems that might arise, especially in a high school.

The recommended code, taken by itself, illustrates a major fault with codes: they tend to deal so much with prohibitions that they give a negative tone to the discipline problem. When codes are limited to prohibitions, they make it appear that disturbances occur more frequently and with greater intensity than they really do. The negative tone can affect the school and the system. Educational codes should contain as many affirmative sections as possible.

A Bill of Rights for Teaching Self-Discipline

1. All people in a school have a *right to learn* without being disturbed.
2. All people have a right to come to school and and to be in school without being *afraid*.
3. All people in a school have a *right to ask questions* until they clearly understand what is being said.
4. All people have a right to know what they are *supposed to do before they can be criticized* for not doing it.
5. All people have a right to criticize any action affecting them so long as the criticism is *fair* and so long as it is said in a way that can correct the situation without *hurting innocent people*.
6. All people in a school have a right to get *good teaching* and to have a good learning atmosphere.
7. All people in a school have a right to *solve problems* that are bothering them.
8. All people have a right to *fair hearing* before being criticized or punished for wrong-doing.
9. All people have a *right to try to change rules* that affect them.
10. All people have a *right to expect authorities* to protect *these rights*.

The authors have been a little hasty when they advise that "the soundest way for a board to insure substantive due process is to adopt clear codes prohibiting serious student misconduct." While such codes, if well written, can be a part of due process procedures, they are merely a rule book and can do little to insure due process for students. Due process that permeates interpersonal relationships in the school, is based upon trust in one another and in rational processes, sincerely presumes that people at least think they have good reason for doing what they do, permits mistakes, and assumes every person is innocent until proven guilty is the best insurance against serious misbehavior.

The Ohio School Boards Association booklet, *Student Due Process: What You Need to Know and Do*, also presents useful information, sound advice, and suggestions that could help to create positive and fair school policies. The checklist on due process and the list of sources for information about school codes and disciplinary policies are useful.

Some boards could develop cold and inflexible policies that would harm the educational process unless they adhere to the spirit of due process as a pervasive principle of interpersonal relations rather than a more legal imposition upon school authority. The booklet quietly suggests such positive approaches, but is not as explicit as might be useful for some boards.

EXCLUSION: TEACHING BY REMOTE CONTROL

School suspension is one of the most controversial approaches to school discipline. The effectiveness of exclusion as a technique for encouraging good discipline is highly questionable, however, school officials have had almost unlimited authority to send students home. Even where legal procedures were required by law or school board policy or both, those requirements were ignored or treated lightly.

For the most part, the public and many school personnel believe that suspensions are administered only in severe cases. Suspension often is defended as the only way to protect teachers and other students from danger or disruption. Recent court cases and careful study, however, do not support those perceptions.

First, suspension is widely used. The Childrens' Defense Fund (CDF) study of suspension rates in 2,862 districts enrolling about half the students in the United States indicates that in 1972-73 more than one million children (out of 24 million enrolled) were suspended from school for an average of just over four days per child. Similarly, in a review of a sample of Ohio schools reporting to the Office of Civil Rights (OCR) for the 1973-74 school year, one out of ten junior and senior high school students were suspended at least once.

The use of suspensions in public schools is frequent, but few suspensions are for dangerous or disruptive behavior. According to the CDF's publication, *School Suspensions: Are They Helping Children?*, the 300 school officials and community leaders, and the 6,500 families surveyed for the report indicated that the vast majority of school suspensions were for non-dangerous, non-violent offenses. Nearly one-fourth of all supsensions were for truancy and tardiness. About one-third of the suspensions were for fighting; but only .01 percent were for fights involving school personnel. Less than three percent of the suspensions were for destruction of property, the use of alcohol or drugs, or other criminal activity. The remaining third of the offenses involved smoking, pregnancy, violations of dress codes, or failure to purchase required equipment.

A third important finding is that more white children than others are suspended but greater proportions of black, poor, male and older students are suspended. During the 1972-73 year, the CDF's review of OCR data indicated that black students were suspended at twice the rate of any other group (11.8 percent compared to 6.0 percent for white secondary students). Evidence does not support that black students are more disruptive. Similarly, in a sample of school districts in Ohio, of the white students studied, 9 percent were suspended compared to 19 percent of the black students who were studied. This finding indicates that there are many ways in which suspensions may be misused.

If discipline is to be fairly administered, due process must govern suspensions and other ways of excluding students. The *Goss v. Lopez* decision made Section 3313.66 of the Ohio Revised Code unconstitutional. In order to protect students from unfair exclusion from school and conform with the Supreme Court decision, the Ohio General Assembly and many other states have adopted new legislation. Major provisions of the Ohio legislation are discussed below.

Discipline Code:

By September 1, 1976, each board of education had to adopt a code of student conduct stating the types of misconduct for which a student may be suspended or expelled. The code must be in writing, a copy must be posted in a central location so people may read it, and copies must be made available to students upon request. All actions to suspend or expel must be in accord with the code.

Suspensions:

A student may be suspended up to ten school days for any conduct which is not approved by the superintendent or the principal. Before the suspension, school officials must give the student

a. written notice stating their intention to suspend and giving reasons for the suspension.

b. an opportunity to appear at an informal hearing before the principal, the superintendent or someone the superintendent appoints to challenge the reasons for the suspension or to explain his or her conduct.*

Expulsion:

Only the superintendent may expel a student and then only until the end of the current semester. Before the expulsion, the student and his or her parent, guardian or custodian must be given written notice stating that the superintendent intends to expel the student and including

a. the reasons for expulsion,

b. notification of the opportunity for the student, and the parents, guardian, custodian or representative to appear before the superintendent or someone designated by the superintendent to challenge reasons or to explain the student's behavior; and

c. notice of the time and place of the hearing, which has to be held no earlier than three nor later than five days after notice is given.

The student, parent, guardian, custodian or representative may request a later date for the hearing, and the superintendent may grant the request but must notify them in writing of the new date, time, and place for the hearing.

After the hearing, if the student is expelled, the superintendent must, within 24 hours, inform the student's parent, guardian, or custodian in writing that the student is expelled and tell them (a) that they may appeal the expulsion to the board of education or to someone that the board has designated; (b) that they have a right to be represented in the appeal, and that they may request a private (executive) session for the appeal. If the student, parent, guardian or custodian requests a hearing, the board of education may appoint some school official or other individual to hear the appeal. It may be done in private if the student, parent, guardian or custodian requests, but the decision must be made in a public session, and a verbatim record must be made. The board's hearing officer may uphold the expulsion, reinstate the student to school, or in any other way reverse, drop the case, or change the original expulsion. If the student or his or her parent or representative does not agree with the outcome of the hearing, he or she may appeal to the Court of Common Pleas as provided in Chapter 2506 of the

*The Goss decision also provides that the student is entitled to an explanation of evidence supporting the reasons, though the Code does not.

Revised Code (Appeals from Orders of Administrative Officers and Agencies).

Removal:

If the principal or superintendent feels that the student poses a continuing danger to other people or to property, or if there is an ongoing threat of disrupting the academic process in the classroom, in extracurricular activities or on the school premises, the student may be removed from those premises without a notice or hearing. Teachers may remove such a student from the classroom or extracurricular activity, but they have to submit a written report to the principal as soon as practicable.

Within 72 hours after such removal a hearing must be held under the same rules that apply to a suspension or an expulsion, whichever seems most likely to be the consequence of the removal. The person ordering the removal must be present at the hearing, and the student must be given written notice of the hearing and the reasons for removal prior to the hearing. The student may be reinstated, but if the teacher asks, the hearing officer must provide a written explanation why the student is being returned to class.

No notice or hearing is necessary if the student is removed from classes or extracurricular activities (but not the school grounds) for a period of less than twenty-four hours.

ALTERNATIVE DISCIPLINARY TECHNIQUES

Ineffective disciplinary techniques are often used because, as disciplinarians explain, "I didn't know what else to do." Many bad practices are used only because they have always been used and they have become habits. Some are almost synonymous with schooling: generations have sung about teaching "to the tune of a hickory stick," and if any child from nearly any school area is asked to play teacher, he or she will take up a ruler and threaten to "paddle" you if you "don't behave." Many teachers and administrators feel defenseless if they cannot paddle or suspend students. However, many teachers and administrators never paddle, and many schools—even in the toughest areas—seldom, if ever, suspend. Their experience proves that effective alternatives do exist.

No technique or procedure can overcome the inability, misunderstanding, or malice of the people who exercise it. There is no technique—no matter how elegant—that can't be made totally ineffective or even destructive by personnel who do not know how or who do not intend to make it work.

Although every person in the school system plays a part in teaching effective discipline or in undermining it, observers generally agree that the school principal plays the most important role. Journalist William Raspberry observed that he would not advise parents to learn the names of effective principals in order to interview them or to visit their schools to learn about good programs because the only effective way to make use of such principals was to hire them away from their schools to work in yours. His observation has been born out by much research on schools and school principals. A competent principal does not make up for inadequacies or negative attitudes of staff members, incompetence or malpractice of the central office and board policies, or ignorance and negative politics of a community; however, able and vigorous leadership can often overcome such effects and is absolutely essential for successful disciplinary and instructional practices to succeed in local schools.

Research clearly indicates that the appointment of a new principal is a crucial point in the life of a school. Neither school authorities, teachers, nor parents should take the choice so lightly as current practices do in most school systems. It is extremely difficult and virtually impossible for the school board, the superintendent, the teachers in the building, or the parents in the community to overcome the ill effects of a poor school principal, unless teachers and others play an active role and take responsibility for what occurs in schools, and superintendents recognize that their most important contribution to a school program may be the appointment of a principal.

Another valuable resource for teaching self-discipline is a faculty who can engage in responsible action to solve problems. They must be able to relate to other adults and students with self-confidence and without the need to impose their own neuroses or blame their own problems on others. When the student is behaving childishly, the teacher's ability to maintain poise and to act as a stabilizer can translate potential conflict into a learning experience. Teachers who are self-assured, who can accept their own weaknesses, who do not have to pick up every challenge from a child, who don't need to prove their authority are living examples of self-discipline for students. Teachers who are not governed by fear, threat, need for status, undue awe for authority figures, or the need to be perfect are the backbone of any effective disciplinary program. Those who bring enthusiasm, respect for individuals, faith in themselves and in the students, willingness to try untried practices, and a sense of humor to the classroom and the faculty meeting are walking curricula who simultaneously convey and command the self-respect essential for self-discipline. Just as every student is capable of self-control, every teacher is capable of becoming a person who fits the models discussed in this paragraph—if the school structure and climate supports and promotes their doing so.

Appendix A presents nearly 50 alternative disciplinary techniques for improving discipline which fall in seven major categories: punishment and control; treatment of student needs; interactive strategies to bring the student and school worlds closer; supportive human resources to help teachers and students; teacher skills improvement; improved rules; and alternative educational settings. Each alternative has advantages and disadvantages and trade offs must be made between the positive and negative in each case. Some school staffs will be able to maximize the positive outcomes, while others may be unable to do so. Despite the multiplicity of factors influencing the success of any teaching method—and in reality, every disciplinary technique is intended to teach a student new behavior—the table should be helpful to people who want to find alternative ways to provide discipline in their schools.

School personnel and community members often go to other communities or schools for advice on policies and procedures that seem to be effective. Selected programs that have reported success in reducing problems and improving discipline in school are described in Appendix B.

Much can be learned from sharing such information—even if it only proves that good schools and effective practices in local schools requires more than just adopting a policy or procedures. Successful programs for teaching discipline depend upon unique interactions among individuals more than on policies, procedures, theories, or purposes. When borrowing a technique or practice from someone else, it is always wise to adapt it to local conditions. Furthermore, school personnel must be able to act upon the spirit more than the letter of the borrowed policy. A failure to borrow with caution can harm the efforts of those who are doing exceptionally well in teaching self-discipline.

Before adopting any exemplary programs from other places, both citizens and school personnel should be aware of some of the limitations of such programs:

1. Exemplary programs may not be what they are publicized to be. Sometimes the events described are not actually occurring in the school but are merely someone's imagination or dreams. Often the program is made successful by factors that are not included in any of the descriptions of the program. In addition, programs described may have built-in problems that have been overcome by participants but are not included in the program descriptions.
2. All programs and techniques have disadvantages as well as advantages. Any tendency to look for perfection can cause people to overlook positive features, and will prevent developing any program.
3. Model programs may not be in 1978 what they were in 1972; so they may be unnecessarily rejected because of what has happened to make them less effective. Money may have been taken away; key figures such as a particular principal, teacher, aide, volunteer or student may no longer be in the program; the problems the program addressed in 1972 may be out of fashion; or other persons or programs may now be doing what the program was designed to do, so it is no longer needed.
4. We cannot always rely upon the opinions of other educators (or other observers) to give any evidence about the utility of a model program. The reporter may like an activity even though it destroys effective learning or may not like a program that is quite valuable.

CONCLUSION

Though concerns about school discipline are often exaggerated, a perceived lack of discipline has posed educational problems for centuries and continues to vex educators and lay citizens alike. Similarly, the solutions have been successfully applied in homes and schools for centuries. Discipline is an educational goal, best achieved when school staffs or parents (or both) take on the task for teaching desired behaviors rather than expending resources in vain attempts to impose external controls.

In American schools, disciplinary methods should be compatible with basic American principles. Methods that violate those principles or that have totalitarian side effects should be abandoned in favor of methods that encourage responsible, self-disciplined exercise of essential rights and freedoms by every member of the school. Viewed from such perspectives, discipline problems may be seen as unique opportunities to teach essential principles for social responsibility. Recent court decisions and legislative mandates lay groundwork for such teaching. School officials must recognize that disruptive behaviors are often caused by forces created in the way schools are operated. By understanding that fact, many schools have reduced disruptive incidents and created effective climates for teaching self-discipline by enabling school staff members to engage in problem-solving relationships which foster more educational interactions with students and with parents. Relationships that produce self-discipline are hallmarks of a quality education program and the foundation for a free society.

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WHERE DID YOU LEARN . . . ?

William W. Wayson
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Where did you learn:

1. That cars go on the right hand side of the road?
2. That teachers should be perfect?
3. That God is a man?
4. That men's buttons go on the right side of a shirt while women's go on the left?
5. That people who've been to school are better than people who haven't been?
6. That teachers should teach a curriculum that someone else designs?
7. That field hands are inferior?
8. That a chair is to sit on?
9. That the Lord intended the screen to be the front of the room?
10. That "natives" are inferior to "discovers"?
11. That prejudice is something whites do to blacks?
12. That churches ought to have the power to marry people?
13. That goals are something somebody above you sets, but you don't?
14. That a college graduate should have taken courses?
15. That a college should have a dean?
16. That a course ought to have a text or set of readings?
17. That you wear robes at graduation?
18. That a Ph.D. doesn't do the thing he/she specializes in but advises those who do it?
19. That Saturday isn't a school day?
20. That teachers must pass along facts as their most important function?
21. That tests are to tell you what the students don't know rather than what you didn't teach?
22. That educated people have to use big words and be called by a title?
23. That the stage is not for student use?
24. That teachers should not be (or should be, if that is the case) called by their first names?
25. That the symbol "chair" can mean a straight back, an easy chair, and a rocking chair?
26. That Shakespeare was dull (fun)?
27. How to fasten your bra?

WAYSON'S LEARNING BOX

THE PERSON OR THING THAT TEACHES

THE LEARNER	Aware of what is being learned	Unaware of what is being learned
Aware of what is being learned	A teaching instruction telling persuasion directive counselling	B imitation mimicry
Unaware of what is being learned	C manipulation motivating nondirective counselling subliminal advertising contingency management propagandizing	D identification modelling "inheritance" imprinting

William W. Wayson
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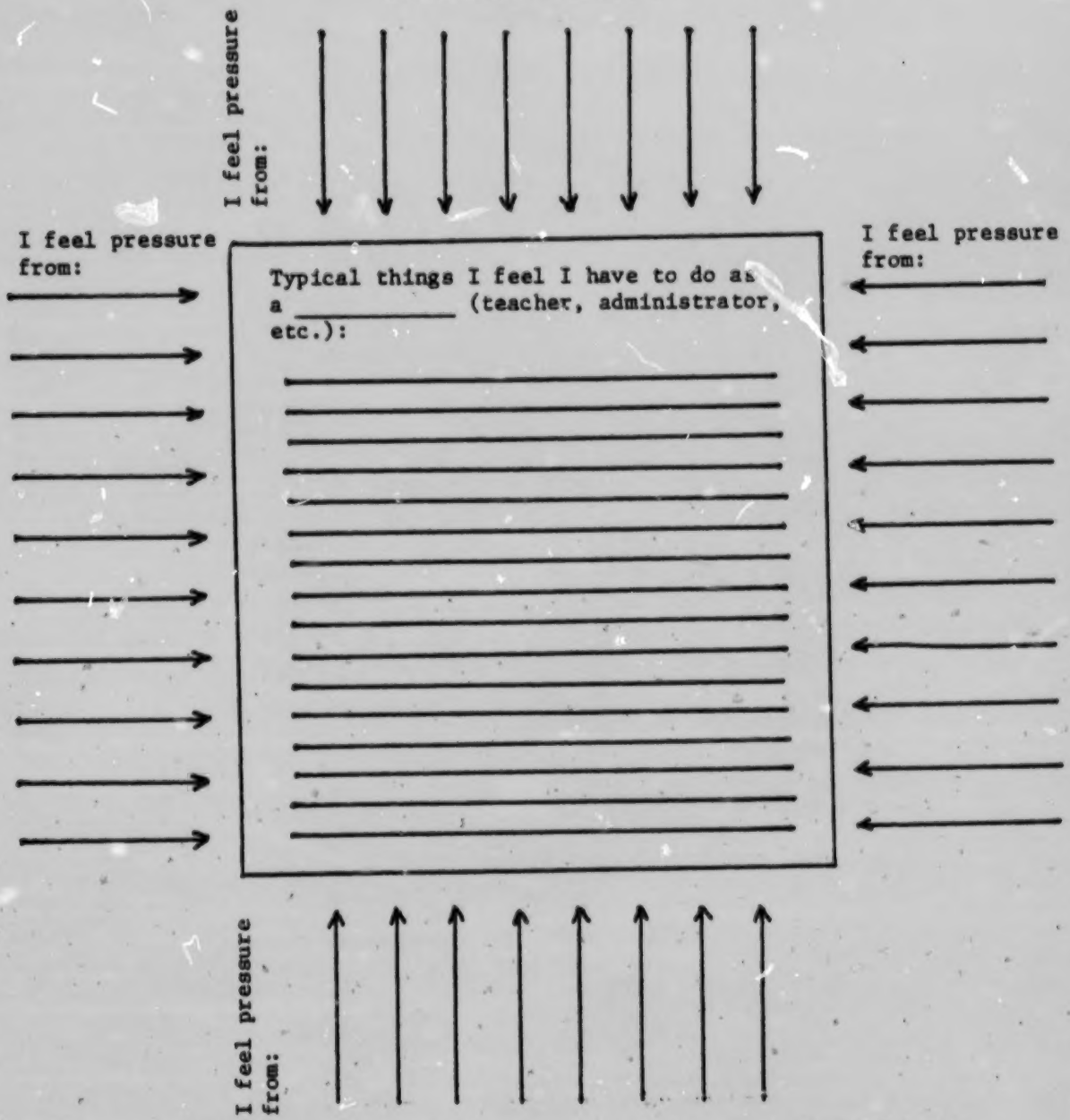
MY PERSONAL PRESSURES


I feel pressure from:
I feel pressure from:
Typical things I feel I have to do as a _____ (teacher, administrator, etc.):
I feel pressure from:
I feel pressure from:

Step 1 -- Inside, the box, list the things you think you have to do as a teacher, administrator, or other person in school. Try to be specific. List the things that you like doing as well as those you do not like doing.

Step 2 -- On the lines surrounding the box, list the people or other sources that you feel put pressure upon you relative the behaviors you have described.

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THE TEACHER AS A GROUP MEMBER:
WHAT SEPARATES TEACHERS

In order to help students become contributing members of the classroom, the school, or the community, teachers themselves need to learn to operate effectively as members of a group. In most cases, neither teacher training nor professional experience prepares teachers to function as group members. To compound this problem, many factors in the school setting are not conducive to staff involvement as members of a group.

Some of those factors which deter group feeling and action among teachers have been identified by Marc Robert in his book, Loneliness in the Schools. Each of you might be able to add to the list, but let us consider some of the situations or practices which often prevent teachers from learning to work together as members of a group.

1. Size of school. Most schools have grown larger; they have more students and therefore more teachers. Because of the number of people involved and the way large school schedules and responsibilities are set up, there is little sustained personal contact among staff members. Therefore, the contacts that are developed may be shallow or non-productive relationships.

2. Cliques, grade levels, departments. Separations are build into the school structure. Teachers often have the opportunity only to get to know those at their own grade level, teaching team, or department because of time schedules for recess, lunch, etc. Sometimes other kinds of groups form, and these may be built around barriers just as artificial or arbitrary as grade level or department -- it might be the "old guard" who have fifteen years in the building, or the first year teachers, or the second floor east wing teachers, or the smokers, or the TGIF crowd.

Often, these groups become defenses for their members and tend to support or promote biases and differences instead of promoting unity and group feeling in the school.

3. That trapped feeling. Teachers, especially at the elementary level, are with children everywhere -- in the classroom, at lunch, at recess, all day. They have an intense need, as one teacher put it, to "talk to someone over ten years old." Often the administration does not help in alleviating or even understanding this feeling because principals and others get caught up in their own problems and forget their teaching days -- they stop understanding the problems and feelings of classroom teachers.

Teachers may feel guilty about this feeling. After all, they went into education because they enjoyed children -- so each one feels somewhere inside that "something must be wrong with me" if I feel trapped by kids, and they tuck the feeling away guiltily. To deal with this feeling it is necessary to be able to admit it, to discuss it openly, and to realize it's O.K. to feel trapped by children. All human beings at some time feel the press of their work -- so teachers may do so too.

4. The self-contained classroom. Of all devices which could have been designed for American education, the self-contained classroom has done more to inhibit the development of group processes and sense of community and belongingness in schools than any other single practice. Each teacher with his or her class operates within the boundaries of a classroom and comes to think of that room as MY room, and the students as MY class, other things as MY bulletin board, MY tape recorder, MY testbooks, MY hallway space, MY, ME, MINE. Other teachers, other students, other ideas often become a threat to "having it your way." The cooperation necessary for developing an educational team never gets off the ground.

5. Faculty meetings. The very procedure which should foster group participation and exchange of ideas has become one of the factors that produces more separation of a building staff. Teachers generally agree on two points concerning faculty meetings: they are boring and they are unproductive. Consider the strikes such meetings have against them before they even begin!

a. They are at the end of the school day when it is difficult if not impossible to be at one's professional or personal "best."
b. By design or by default the meeting usually consists of one-way communication which may be neither informative nor inspiring.
c. The people at the meeting are not a group; rather they are merely a collection of people subjected to a common situation.

The solution often tried by principals who realize the meetings are poor is to have fewer meetings instead of taking steps to improve the meetings. Fewer meetings simply increases the lack of group or community feeling.

6. Not knowing each other. Because of the factors discussed before, and for a number of other reasons, many teachers in a school do not know each other. They may be acquainted, may know names, what kind of car others drive, even a few simple -- usually superficial -- facts about them, but they do not know each other as persons. This does not necessarily mean that a staff should have social togetherness in order to function as a group, although that, too, is fine if it happens. Knowing each other as persons implies that there is a friendly climate, that teachers are aware and accepting of the personal characteristics, the special interests and needs of fellow teachers. In schools where

teachers are well acquainted, research has shown that there is

--more consideration in the planning and sharing of time and resources,
--less defensiveness,
--more consensus,
--more sense of direction,
--more hospitable climate for the assimilation of new staff members.

There is a direct correlation between friendliness among teachers and the climates which exist for student learning.

7. Lack of consensus. There is a need for agreement among staff members concerning important procedures and issues which affect their role in the school and their relationships with one another and with students.

The usual procedure for problem-solving in staff meetings is to take a vote -- perhaps because that is the economical way to settle issues insofar as time is concerned. Consider the effect, however, of a 60-40 vote: almost half the staff is unhappy with the outcome of the decision and is uncommitted, at best, to its implementation. At worst, that 40%, or some part of it, may choose to ignore or to actively work against the decision.

8. Fear of inadequacy. Teachers, like all other human beings, have the need to be included in what is going on, the need to be accepted as important. On many school staffs, teachers are afraid of not being a part of the "in-group," of not being recognized for their contributions to the school, of not being mentioned in the board report or the parent newsletter. This fear of personal/professional inadequacy creates an underlying competitiveness among teachers -- a competitiveness which undermines effective group action. The need is for a climate of trust among staff members. Without that climate, fear, suspicion and apathy will increase as individuals perceive pressures to be increasing.

9. Isolation of specialists. Some individuals in the school are typically made to feel excluded, often quite unintentionally. Those who are not "regular" classroom teachers -- special education teachers, library staff, particularly traveling personnel -- are not made to feel membership in any faculty group.

10. Lack of time to get together. Of course, the priority is on wise use of classroom time, but is it wise use of time when there is seldom or never the opportunity to become a faculty, a team of educators working to develop an atmosphere of community in the school? There is need for planning a different allocation of available time, for placing the priority on development of the staff, students and the total school as a community.

When teachers experience the professional loneliness which comes from those factors, what is the result? Often, it is just a generalized feeling that no one really cares about them or about what they really do -- that their job is just to keep the lid on things, to hold the fort. These feelings may result in loss of professional ideals and goals and convince teachers that survival comes by taking the expedient course of action.

Alienation of teachers from one another can also have other results. One of these is anxiety. When teachers are not sure what will come next from the "powers that be" -- what new program, added workload, or different expectation -- they become anxious. Anxiety results in resistance to change and defense of the status quo.

Still another result of the lonely teacher syndrome is antagonism -- a negative attitude toward administrators, parents, students, other teachers, because of poor communications and misunderstanding.

For some teachers, fear is a result of the lack of community in the school. They believe that a mistake on their part which may cause conflict with parents or the administration will leave them vulnerable and without any support.

An even more pervasive result of professional loneliness among teachers shows up in such things as teacher absenteeism and eventual resignation from teaching. Teachers who have no one to talk to about their problems, no opportunities for sharing their feelings or seeking help from a non-threatening resource, feel that they are not making it as teachers, even though they are trying hard and doing their best. So they feel they are not "good" teachers or adequate people, because the image they have of good teaching does not include room for problems or mistakes.

Certainly there are administrative factors which also contribute to the lack of community in a school. Just as teachers feel that the school environment keeps them and their students uninvolved and lonely with no sense of community or belonging, administrators also have the feeling of loneliness. They feel their responsibility is increasing and their authority is diminishing. Many administrators feel they are so busy putting out bonfires that they have no time to train others to be firefighters, much less to coordinate any effort for fire prevention. Here are some of the administrative factors which promote the lack of community in a school:

a. Inaccessibility. Many principals maintain an open door policy, but are never in the office. They make decisions by the book but are never available to discuss the book. The staff cannot improve its cohesiveness until the principal is a visible being.

b. Playing favorities. For many administrators, the problem lies in the existence of "in-groups" or "out-groups" -- those who are perceived as being preferred by the principal in some way -- whether it is socially or through some favor in scheduling, class load, etc.

c. Lack of staff involvement in decision-making. Teachers often feel they are asked to settle questions which are of little real consequence while the significant decisions are made elsewhere and handed down to them. Robert Owen says that "trying to involve teachers in decisions which don't concern them is as destructive as not involving them in decisions in which they have no interest."

d. Administrators are sometimes guilty of improper delegation of responsibility.
   (1) They ask a willing but overworked teacher to take on a job he or she does not have time to do.
   (2) They may, with every good intention, assign responsibility to teachers who do not have the authority or perhaps the ability to carry out that particular responsibility.
   (3) Principals have been known to manipulate staff members into taking on unwanted responsibilities -- through friendship, threat, praise, or other pressures.

e. Finally, the lack of community and consequent feeling of alienation or loneliness in a school is increased by inadequate communication between the administration and staff. Some principals tend to rely on staff meetings, bulletins, memos, and the overused public address system to communicate with their staff as well as with students. Those methods cannot replace face-to-face communication which builds trust and diminishes separateness.

Of course, there are many factors which contribute to lack of communication. To mention only a few of these factors, we could again include size -- the fact that many schools now have a large staff and the principal feels overwhelmed at the thought of two-way communication with each staff member. Another inhibitor of communication may begin in the school system's staffing process. If there is inadequate opportunity for the principal or other building personnel to have input, or at least veto power, in the selection of staff for the school, a valuable basis for initial development of communication with new staff is lost.

The role of the principal has expanded in recent years and this has brought increasing demands on the principal's time from the district level. Pressures at the upper administrative levels are passed on to the building level. There are also time-consuming pressures on the principal from the community and community groups -- both those who are supportive of the school and those who are critical or antagonistic.

Special programs have in some cases decreased communication between the principal and staff, or between personnel in the special programs and the regular school staff. Federally-funded programs or special projects with their own administrative staff may create division in a number of ways within a school. And, of course, a serious rift has been produced in some school situations by the emergence of negotiations procedures and organizations which have created a labor-management dichotomy and stressed differences rather than commonalities.

None of these factors is going to simply disappear. A school staff that wants to develop a sense of community in their building must be willing to work at doing so. They will have to deal responsibly with every one of those separating factors over which they can have some measure of control. Some -- such as size of school or initial community pressures -- are givens, but most of the others -- and perhaps even these two as well -- can be changed or redirected by a staff or a part of a staff who is willing to tackle the job.

The steps for developing a sense of community in a school can be easily outlined and described, but their implementation becomes an on-going process. A sense of community in a school begins with a sense of group membership and group action on the part of the staff. First, then, a staff must find time or create time to meet together effectively for the purpose of building an educational team in which there is involvement, contact, and mutual trust and support. Principals have a role in such team-building, of course, for it has been shown both in practice and in research that leaders in an organization <u>get</u> the kind of atmosphere they want -- not the kind they <u>say</u> they want, but the kind they <u>show</u> they want.

Very briefly, here is a summary of the steps for building an educational team in a school:

1. Clarify and improve communication.
2. Establish goals.
3. Uncover and work with conflicts; develop interdependence among staff members.
4. Improve group procedures and meetings.
5. Establish effective problem solving procedures.
6. Develop staff decision-making processes.
7. Evaluate and recycle the process.

Help in carrying out these steps is available from a number of sources: resource persons, consultants, workshops, bibliographic resources, etc. But the key to success lies within the most potent resource of all -- the capacity of people to grow, not only as individuals, but as a group working together to improve the collective of which they are a part -- whether it is a school, a neighborhood, a community, or some other organizational unit.

Prepared by Rayalene Brizendine, 1976

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REDUCING STRESS IN THE HUMAN SERVICE PROFESSIONS

William W. Wayson

Stress in the body's physical, mental and chemical reaction to circumstances that cause excitement, confusion, fear or irritation. Stress is a natural human reaction that helps us to handle unfamiliar or unexpected occurrences. However, when handled poorly or when introduced in too large quantities, stress can cause or contribute to diseases, weakening of the body, depression or other mental problems.[1]

Professionals often forget that they lead full lives outside their work, and much stress arises from the other roles they play, such as parent, lover, citizen, child, or sibling. Changes or unsettling events in any part of ones life causes stress, which if it accumulates from several sources can cause serious illness or accidents. Thomas Holmes an M.D. from the University of Washington School of Medicine has developed a scale that assesses the empact of life changes such as divorce, death in the family, outstanding achievement, marriage, pregnancy, change of jobs, beginning or terminating formal schooling--even Christmas.[2] Any of those events can raise a "stress score" to levels at which individuals are subject to serious mishap or illness. Professionals often discount their out-of-work lives and fail to "ease up" when stress accumulates in their home or personal lives.

Professionals in the human service professions are quite susceptible to stress and are particularly prone to ignore its early warning signs until the pressure has reached alarming or unmanagable levels. Among teachers, for example, burnout (a stress-induced state of physical, emotional, and attitudinal exhaustion) has been described as "epidemic".[3] Teacher Burnout is often attributed to such factors as disruptive students, vandalism, inadequate salaries, large classes, involuntary transfers, or interfering parents. Social workers and mental health professionals at a recent conference we attended reported burnout as a common deterent to improved services in their agencies. School administrators, members of the health professions, welfare workers, social workers all seem pront to stress and to the severest forms of reaction. Even though the current discussion of stress suggests a lot of faddism and

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[1]A layperson's discussion of the subject is presented in "Stress," Blueprint for Health, XXV, No. 1 (Chicago, Illinois: Blue Cross Association, 1974).

[2]Gabe Mirkin, "How to Cope With Job Stress," Nation's Business (January, 1969) 69-72. See also Donald Dudley and Elton Welke, How to Survive Being Alive (New York: Doubleday and Company, Inc., 1977).

[3]William H. McQuire, "Teacher Burnout," Today's Education (November-December, 1979)5.

professionals should not feel quilty if they do not feel particularly distressed,[4] professionals are well-warned to beware the signes of stress, to develop preventive-life styles, and to learn the basic techniques for coping with or managing stress.

Sources of Stress in Professional Roles

Many service roles are "built for stress". Teachers, for example have had their roles eroded by so many specialists that the residue is filled with many tasks, few of which provide self fulfillment or a sense of worth and completeness. A friend of mine, John Bates of Toronto Canada suggests out of his experience in two remarkable schools that we should not try to take things away from the teaching role but should strive to add dignity-giving tasks. Social workers continually work seemingly insurmountable problems, and workers with senile or terminally-ill patients face daily "failure" if they choose to view their task that way. Human service personnel often express expectations for themselves that would challenge the gods and are quaranteed stressful for common mortals. Here are some common ideas expressed by teachers with whom we have worked:

1. Teachers usually work in their own spaces, alone with 25-35 students. They have little training or experience for working with other adults. Consequently, they often express loneliness and a feeling of isolation.

2. I have to handle them all. Teachers feel responsible for a large number of students and think that teachers singlehandedly must control all students all of the time and must singlehnadedly meet all their learning needs.

3. I'm responsible for doing everything. Teachers often have a "superman" or "superwoman" complex. They think they can't make mistakes, that they must be right and that they alone must do everything in the classroom, and they must do it perfectly.

4. It's wrong to take ideas from others; all ideas must be original--and new. Teachers are often reluctant to use ask others for ideas, help, or advice. They think it's "cheating" to "copy" ideas. Fellow faculty members often discourage sharing ideas.

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[4]Boyd Swent and Walt Gmelch report in The Administration Professor, a newsletter of the American Association of School Administrators (January, 1980), page 5 that "over 80,000 articles have been written about stress, 1,000 research projects have been done, and every year 6,000 more publications are catalogued under the heading of stress."

5. We all have to be alike, do the same thing, get the same things. Teachers sometimes compare themselves to others on such items as rate of progress through textbooks, artistry of bulletin boards, and behavior of students. They may think it is wrong to develop their own styles and ways of working with individual pupils. The fight petty fights to prevent anyone's getting more of anything than everyone else does or to resist someone's being different.

6. We have to dwell on our failures. One "rotten apple" ruins the barrel-one unhappy parent, one disruptive youngster, or one quarrel with another teacher can ruin a teacher's day. Teachers have a tendency to forget about the dozens of successes they have everyday.

7. I don't know why I'm doing what I'm doing. Teachers find themselves following "recipes" rather than making their own decisions about student learning. They may follow a set curriculum blindly and often lack confidence to make creative adaptations.

8. I don't know when I've done what I'm supposed to do. It is often difficult for teachers to recognize student progress as well as their own. They do not have observable criteria for judging individual progress.

9. I don't know how to do what I'm supposed to know how to do. Teachers are involved in complex tasks, and they often lack confidence in their ability to fulfill expectations, particularly when expectations are of the "superperson" variety. The teaching role requires many skills that are never addressed during teacher preparation and are often suppressed by school norms.

10. Others control my life--my future and my status. Teachers typically have few opportunities to make important decisions. Others tell them who to teach, when to teach, what to teach, where to teach, and what materials to use. Teachers frequently come to feel totally at the mercy of others, and their future often looks uncertain.

11. Others don't value what I'm doing. Teacher's families or friends often don't value teaching. Even the educational system communicates low opinions of those who teach. On the job, teachers often feel like cogs in the machinery; they are told what to do, and they can be easily replaced. Community pressures and inadequate finances for public education lowers teacher morale and confidence.

12. I have no recreation, no rest. Teachers often concentrate so heavily on work that they feel guilty when not working. Little attention is given to developing interests, hobbies and personal habits that create a full and rewarding life.

13. There isn't time enough to do all I have to do. Like many professional occupations, teaching involves a thousand details. Teachers feel pressure to accomplish many things within a rigid time framd, and they have few skills for establishing reasonable priorities or atainable long-range plans.

Other human service professional express similar ideas about their work.

Stress develops inside the individual as a uniquely personal reaction to the environment as one perceives it. Coping or dealing with stress requires a new personal stance, a reorientation of the individual to the world, preferably some sense of control over ones life.

Here are some suggestions that appear to be successful for many professionals:

1. Have a plan; take charge.

Give yourself a sense of direction, some goals to attain, and--even though the plan may have to be interrupted or altered on occasion--let the plan give stability to an otherwise chaotic or erratic world. Use the plan to establish priorities and to prevent overloading or getting side tracked. In short, know where you are going and how you intend to get there. Of course, the plan should be reasonable, attainable, and sufficiently clear to provide recognizable evidence of progress.

2. Confront your problems.

Problems don't go away by ignoring them. Trace each problem squarely and do something to resolve it or reduce it. "Gunnysacking" (tucking little problems away until they accumulate in large, indistinquishable but volatile packs that you carry with you) is stressful and explosive.

3. Get to the heart of the matter.

Deal with what is really bothering you, not the symptoms or the excuses. For example, fear of failure or reluctance to be evaluated may be more stressful to you than the list of unfinished tasks that occupies so much of your discussion.

4. Focus on the positives.

Think about what you did accomplish, at the things that are going well. List 5 successes each day.

5. Develop signs of success.

Determine criteriably which you will know you have succeeded. Long-range roals are important, but you also need some everyday indications that will tell you that you are succeeding. Don't wait for others to tell you and don't depend upon their evaluations.

6. Take on step at a time.

Do what needs to be done, but have priorities and don't try to do everything at the same time. Each small step toward even the most distant goal is progress and is essential for getting there.

7. Don't push ropes.

Don't waste energy pushing the immovable or trying to change the unchangeable. Tackle those things that can be done.

8. Focus on the here and now.

Don't dwell on the past and don't wait for a never-to-arrive tomorrow. Determine that today is where you are living; don't let worries or ancitipations prevent your making today the test you can live..

9. Reward your own achievements.

If rewards aren't built into the particular situation, think of some to provide for yourself. Buy yourself something or treat yourself as soon as you reach a goal or a milestone.

10. Establish routines where possible.

Reduce routine recurring problems to routine ways of handling and delegate all you can. Organize help that is available from clients, students, aides, and volunteers to get routine matters out of the way. For example, teachers can teach students to clean the classroom, collect and count money, and pass out papers, freeing the teacher to perform other, less-routine functions.

11. Have at least one significant other.

Everyone needs at least one person with whom he or she can talk honestly and openly about anything and everything. Cultivate such friends as precious and rare flowers.

12. Nourish your body and mind.

Get enough sleep and have a nutritious diet. Try giving-up high caffeine items such as cola or coffee. Take time for recreation. Have a fulfilling hobby or habit even if it is just watching trees grow.

13. Let others grow up.

Face the fact that their problems are their problems and that you cannot help them by being a crutch fro them. They must live their lives; you cannot do it for them, and it is arrogant and demeaning of you to try.

14. Realize the significance of your work.

Know that you are a vital and powerful influence in people's lives, that you encounter them in ways that profoundly affect them. The good that you do goes far beyond your comprehension and lives on in generations you will never live to see. If people's lives seem bad, think what they would be if you weren't working.

SOME COMMON MISCONCEPTIONS ABOUT LEADERSHIP

Often principals are blinded by some common misconceptions that prevent them from exhibiting more leadership. The list that follows is adapted from "Misconceptions about Leadership" by W.W. Wayson, National Elementary Principal (November/December, 1975), pp. 12 - 17.

Misconception #1 --- Leaderships comes with position

... The leadership functions that "come with the territory" account for only about one half of what the principal needs to exert leadership. For example, the principal can order -- and will probably get -- all teachers to attend faculty meetings, but greater leadership is required to make a faculty meeting productive.

Misconception #2 -- Leadership should be exercised exclusively by persons in titled positions.

... Such an assumption can lead the principal to believe that he or she can do everything alone and will lose an opportunity to enlist the faculty in developing goals and procedures that will have greater educational outcomes. Leaders can, in fact, create the conditions by which others can exercise leadership when circumstances call for them to do so.

Misconception #3 — No one can perform a leadership act unless it is expressly permitted by a higher authority.

... Real leadership takes place when needed by circumstances; it doesn't wait on formal rules of actions; it does not occur only during school hours.

Misconception #4 -- Leaders never get opposition or have to answer questions about what they are doing.

... A leader cannot wait until all opposition is silent or until he

or she is sure no mistakes will be made; a leader cannot be dissatisfied simply because all opposition has not been silenced.

Misconception #5 -- Leadership always has to be democratic.

... Sometimes a principal will face situations in which no one else will take action or the action of a majority would be detrimental to a minority.

Misconception #6 -- A democratic leader never leads (no one should impose his/her will on a group).

... Such laissez-faire administration promotes everyone's holding back for fear of not being a good group member--and no decisions are made.

THE PRINCIPAL'S KEY ROLE IN CREATING A QUALITY DESEGREGATED SCHOOL

by

William W. Wayson and Gay S. Pinnell

The primary responsibility for creating a quality school inevitably rests with the building principal. While much good education can be achieved by exceptional teachers or groups of teachers who learn to work with (or in spite of) the principal, the most effective programs are those which are developed with the principal as a full participant and leader. The principal, in fact, is the single most powerful factor in achieving quality in a newly desegregated school.

Much is said today about the constraints that prevent the principal's leading. Size of schools, central office pressures, pressures for accountability, state regulations, teachers' unions, and hundreds of others are cited as paralyzing the principal. All of those problems must be solved or circumvented; yet, the most pressing constraints arise from personal factors -- knowledge, skills, attitudes, preferences, anxieties, and habits. Those personal factors prevent finding solutions to the larger problems. "I don't think I'm supposed to" and "I don't know how" are the two greatest sources of resistance to change. This newsletter will present a list of suggestions which we think will help principals look at their role in new ways, break free from constraints they place on themselves, and solve the problems facing them in newly desegregated settings.

Maximize the chances for success before taking a new principalship. Interview teachers in the school as well as central office staff when investigating a new position. From the beginning, the principal must:

- know what problems need to be resolved in the building;
- know the strengths of the school;
- make his or her own job expectations clear to administrators and teachers; and
- specify what resources are needed to solve the problems of the school.

If, in the prospective principal's judgment, the problems cannot be solved with available resources, he/she should not take the job.

Avoid self-defeating behaviors -- those which cause you to be beaten before you start. Some examples of self-defeating behaviors are:

- saying "It can't be done";
- waiting to be told what to do;
- anxiously seeking approval from superiors;
- withholding suggestions or actions;
- avoiding criticism;
- defining problems as unsolvable;
- being afraid to hurt others:
- waiting until the last minute to do things;
- always feeling pushed by something;
- having a lack of confidence in oneself; and
- being excessively anxious to please others.

Make up your mind to deal with the school's most pressing problem even if it is not a purely "educational" one. Problems outside the classroom often have such strong influence on the school that quality cannot be achieved. For example, a school in a transient, poor area of Toronto had great difficulty getting information to and from the community. As a consequence, students were not registered for the coming year and no one knew even approximately how many might show up to enroll on the first day. Notes sent home were not returned and the community knew little about school functions. The principal took steps to solve the problem. On the first day of school, children were sent home with a piece of their own work to show and two small magnets to hold it on the refrigerator door. The magnets created "message boards" on which children and

parents could put materials sent from the school. When messages were sent to the home, each child was always given one notice for his or her own family and another to deliver to a neighbor. School notices were placed in special containers in banks on days when payroll or welfare checks were delivered and at social agencies serving the parents. Within a year, good communication had been achieved.

Look at all standardized practices and see if there are other, more educational options. Be willing to consider conventional wisdom and, if necessary, discard it. The principal should continuously ask WHY things are done the way they are. The following questions can be used to stimulate discussion and examination of current practices in a school.

1. Why must all classrooms and teachers be on the same schedule?
2. Why are young children in one part of the school and older children in another?
3. Why do all teachers and children have to get to the school and leave school at the same time?
4. Why are the minutes before lunch and the end of school considered wasted time?
5. Why must parents send permission slips for each field trip instead of blanket forms for any that might be taken during the year?
6. Why must children eat lunch with those from their own classroom?
7. Why are children placed in circles for reading?
8. Why is there a "textbook adoption"?
9. Why does the lunch count go to the principal or even to the principal's office?

Establish goals and priorities to guide decision making and action. Without well established goals and benchmarks by which progress can be measured, daily crises may preempt available enthusiasm or energy. Three suggestions for

helping the principal and staff be aware of what has been and is to be accomplished are listed below.

1. Keep routines operating with at least a year-ahead view. For example, the opening of school is evaluated in October, revised in April, organized in May, rehearsed in June, and done more smoothly in September.
2. Document progress. For example, counting the number of discipline incidents in the cafeteria once a week for three months may help a faculty to realize they are reducing problems. A principal can jot down the number of students in his/her office each day for several weeks. If the number declines, it might be concluded that teachers are solving more of their own problems. We tend to look only at what is <u>not</u> done and to expect immediate achievement of our ideal. We then fail to recognize and be encouraged by what <u>has</u> been accomplished.
3. Avoid losing sight of long-range goals. Problem-solving should always involve preparing for the future so that the same problems won't have to be solved again and again. For example, stopping a fight in the corridor controls the immediate situation; however, finding the causes for fights (such as poor traffic patterns or unresolved racial tension) is necessary for eliminating fights. In a newly desegregated school, the long-range goal should be integrated cooperation among students. Having students move in separate groups without fights is not enough. The principal and teachers should identify behaviors which they want all students to exhibit at the end of the year and design curricula and organizational

structures that will reinforce those behaviors.

Constantly remind yourself that you cannot do everything yourself but must have others do what needs to be done. The principal often feels responsible for everything when in fact he or she is only responsible for seeing that it gets done. Leadership is the process by which any member helps a school meet its goals; the principal's leadership is expressed by creating conditions in which staff and students can and will act as leaders when they are needed. The educational leader sees possibilities in situations and in people and uses that potential to promote the school's effectiveness. Principals who are leaders encourage staff to experiment and to learn from occasional failures. They protect staff from unreasonable constraints within the school system and they enable staff to gain stature and confidence as they meet "outsiders". They do not wait for the system to provide all resources but develop their own sources of supply.

Take time to create and foster normal operating procedures for getting both routine and spontaneous things done in ways that promote desired educational outcomes. Operating procedures, or "the way we do things around here," are not extraneous and trivial factors in the school life; they are part of an enveloping curriculum which teaches students and adults new behaviors. New students, teachers, or other adults entering the school situation quickly learn "how we act here." People behave differently at football games and at church; yet both are learned, disciplined ways to act. Both sets of behaviors are learned (almost "absorbed") from the physical environment, the stimulations, and the perceived approval or disapproval of people around us. When many students are new to a school, as in desegregated

schools, it is especially important to spend time developing and teaching operating procedures which are consistent with the long range goals for the educational climate. Try to imagine what the school would be like if the following statements were true.

1. Teachers feel they are to communicate personally with parents when a student has accomplished something.
2. Students and teachers habitually pick up pieces of litter whenever they see it in the corridor or playground.
3. Every student knows how to organize and put away materials in classrooms.
4. Students know the school well enough to show visitors around and explain what is going on.
5. Every student knows how to use the library.
6. Every student knows how to pay for his or her own lunches (and older students know how to collect and account for it).
7. Teachers occasionally eat lunch with their students.
8. Teachers spend recess time in September teaching children how to play organized games on the playground during lunc hour.
9. Everyone knows that all activities are to be integrated.

Be flexible enough to use serendipity to promote leadership and educational progress. Not all brilliant decisions are planned; they often result from seizing "happy accidents." Some examples are listed below.

1. While talking with a parent about a discipline problem, the principal may discover that the parent has skills and is willing to help in the school.
2. When an assistant or vice principal doesn't know how to perform an expected task, the principal may find that the teachers do not need anyone to perform that task for them.
3. When textbooks are in short supply, students and teachers can often find more interesting learning materials on their own.

4. Something the principal has always done sometimes gets done -- and maybe done better -- when the principal is on sick leave.

Learn what decisions NOT to make. Principals often are asked to do things they should not do -- things that produce dependency and immature behavior in others. Here are some examples of decisions which could have negative results if "taken on" by the principal.

1. Two teachers are arguing and ask the principal to mediate.
2. A parent demands public response to a rumor.
3. A teacher does not know how to order films and wants someone else to do the job.
4. An official asks for action on the basis of one complaint.
5. A teacher who is having difficulty with role conflict asks the principal to make the choice between two courses of action.
6. A teacher who is afraid to supervise an aide asks the principal to do it.

Learn to recognize the unanticipated consequences of well-intended procedures. Helping other people gain self-confidence and strength requires that we take away their crutches. Sometimes, help suppresses personal growth and retards education. Some well-established procedures can succeed in making the principal's role more difficult. Some examples are listed below.

1. Having textbooks laid out when the school opens reinforces feelings that someone else dictates the curriculum and that instruction is text-centered.
2. Asking teachers to have rooms cleaned, books inventoried, and reports completed the day after school closes for the summer will result in wasted learning time during the last weeks of school.
3. Playing go-between in disputes prevents people from learning to solve their own problems.
4. Avoiding discussions of racial differences promotes racial tensions.

5. Intercepting concerned parents can prevent people from confronting or solving their own problems. For example, a teacher who never has to answer parents' questions does not learn techniques for coping with the situation and also loses confidence in his or her ability to do so.

Don't fall into the trap of thinking it is your duty to defend teachers' actions whether they are right or wrong. Teachers need support and encouragement, but giving blanket protection leads to dependency and childish avoidance. Teachers are adults and must take responsibility for their own actions as they discipline students, assess student progress, work with parents, make instructional decisions, and cooperate with each other. Defending their actions reduces the learning which comes from the "natural consequences" of their acts. Defending wrong actions undermines public confidence in the principal's judgment. The principal does not have to publicly condemn a teacher's actions; merely require that the teacher discuss the matter with students and parents — explaining, defending, apologizing, or changing on his or her own. No other course of action allows teachers to gain the respect and status that befits responsible professionals.

Choose from among the expectations imposed by varied and contradictory sources those expectations that you allow to govern your behavior. School principals typically can identify a lot of "theys" who demand things. Principals (generally erroneously) assume that "they" means everyone in that category: the parents want this; the central office wants that. Principals as leaders must learn to differentiate the expectations directed toward them, and to consciously select those expectations they will meet and those they will not. A principal can get a clearer picture by estimating the percentage of each demanding group that expects certain behaviors. Always ask: How many (parents, central office staff, etc.) want that? Or how many have complained? Who are they? Even when a large percentage of a group expresses agreement about what they want, the expectation is usually stated in vague rather than specific terms. Most of the parents might say they want "good discipline," but each has a different definition of what that is and the responsible educator has to determine which meanings to accept.

The principal must satisfy some demands but cannot satisfy all. His or her role is often shaped by those who push the hardest or make the most noise. Knowing the number of people who actually hold the expectation will help the principal to shape his or her role and to lead rather than simply to react. What each principal does is determined by who he or she permits to influence his or her actions. Every principal should take responsibility for the choices made and should thoughtfully examine:

1. Who determines the shape of the role I play?
2. Whom do I typically permit to influence my behavior and why?
3. What do I do to shape my role in the face of incompatible pressures from outside?

Act with the knowledge that expectations for self and for others serve as self-fulfilling prophecies. All of us force other people to behave in ways that prove what we expect of them. Here are some examples of how predictions can influence behavior:

Prediction: Teacher X will never change. (The principal and other staff members do nothing to help that person change and as a result, no change occurs.)

Prediction: Teachers will not participate in a faculty meeting. (The Principal fills the time with talking. Faculty members feel no responsibility to contribute.)

Prediction: The downtown office won't let people in the school do something. (The principal and staff members never try to do it.)

Prediction: Parent X is belligerent. (The principal or teacher acts in a defensive way which irritates the parent and eventually does make him or her belligerent.)

Prediction: These children can't learn. (Teachers and peers put no pressure on the youngsters to help them learn, so they do not achieve.)

Try to make the bureaucracy work for you, not against you. In addition to the four "steps for making the system work," the following suggestions are listed.

1. Initiate requests for services; don't wait for others to do it for you.
2. Find the shortest routes for getting things done. For example, one form or memo may take the place of three. Going to the source for

information rather than listening to a dozen opinions will save time. A telephone call gets quicker answers than letters of inquiry.

3. Learn from mistakes and try to use new strategies the next time. Don't let one mistake inhibit future actions.

4. Capitalize on success. Make the most of positive achievements by the students and school staff. Promote the school with outside groups whenever possible.

5. Know the organizational structure, both formal and informal, of the school district. Find out who makes decisions and who influences decisions.

6. Don't ask others to take responsibility for what you want to do. Constant use of "the central office wants it" or "the teachers want it" will undermine the principal's leadership role.

7. Get to know the secretaries and support personnel in the central office.

8. Always consult original sources about decisions that limit you. A principal who is examining conventional practices will often be told "there's a policy" or "the school board doesn't allow it." Ask questions such as: What is the policy? Where is it written? Who formulated the policy? Often, no policy actually exists. Just as often, when it does exist, it is subject to several interpretations. A principal can go to those who formulated the policy to get clear interpretations or can exercise a personal interpretation. A leader has as much intelligence as anyone to interpret district policy.

Help the school board and the central office learn how to support autonomy for the principal. All organizations tend to predict that subordinates are incapable. They initiate practices and procedures that prove the assertion. Principals must demonstrate initiative and independence to show that better educational outcomes and better problem-solving derives from more autonomous decision-making in individual school buildings. Principals must:

- point out how their decisions can bring desirable consequences, or how procedures can limit desirable alternatives;
- show the benefits principals' autonomy (more gets done and the heat is diffused);
- refuse to behave as dependent servants or children;

- rarely, if ever, push a local school decision upstairs;
- exercise initiative when their schools have problems (don't wait for "George" to do what needs doing); and
- demonstrate that they expect to be consulted in matters involving the school.

Build a support system. The principal should attempt to have the staff and community -- or at least a significant portion of them -- in his/her corner. One way is to keep them informed and solicit their advice and counsel. It is also necessary to have communication system that can pull them together on short notice to give advice or to take action on behalf of the school. A leader's power must come from more than "mother system."

Above all, to be effective as leaders, principals must be willing to take risks. Most of the risk is not real, anyway, but resides in one's own overly cautious perception. Principals cannot excessively fear for their jobs or personal security and they cannot ask permission to use necessary educational measures. They cannot quail before the public nor collapse before the first criticisms. If we are to have quality education in desegregated schools, principals who embody those qualities of leadership are the key.

A PROPOSAL TO REMAKE THE PRINCIPALSHIP

by

William W. Wayson

Often the problem of size is not that we have large schools, but that we try to govern them as though they were small schools.

The most important variable in this matter is whether the principal sees the school as an institution or as a community. My home town had two thousand residents, housed in about six hundred buildings and served by seven churches; as many grocery stores; several restaurants; a half-dozen bars, appealing to as many interests and drinking styles; a city hall; two mortuaries; ten gas stations; a movie house; and a variety of other special service and social centers, including a Carnegie library that I always found attractive. Each of these separate buildings had its own management and organization; each person had his home place with its rules of operation, in which he was able to make most of his own life decisions with minimal interference. As one entered into other buildings, he was consciously taught the modes of life that were appropriate there. He learned other, more subtle attitudes and behaviors through a process that, although it was one he was unaware of, was systematic. Both teaching and living took place in highly decentralized settings that remained inviolate from intrusion by central authorities. The mosaic of life was a well-constructed jigsaw puzzle. Each part complemented its adjacent pieces and supplemented, or at least did not interfere with, the others. Of course, there were aberrations, some of which required police action. But no one thought it unusual when they occurred, and procedures were reasonably well worked out beforehand for dealing with them. Several fights every Saturday night and many burglaries, a murder or a suicide, and a half-dozen fatal auto accidents every year were not sufficient to earn the town a reputation for lacking discipline. (Many principals in reputedly tough schools that have fewer disorders might take heart from this comparison)

Life in the community was not randomly arranged. Because the rules of behavior were deeply established in tradition, they were considered normal and natural. But the rules were not inherited. They had been learned through generations of conscious and unconscious transmission from one person to another.

Unfortunately, the essentials of how people learn to live in a community have become obscured and are too frequently overlooked when we have to find ways to create a community among people who possess no sense of it. If we see a school as a community, we must identify those essential processes and install them as a part of the living curriculum that touches every person in the school.

Compare a school with my home town: The last school I administered had 1,300 inhabitants and at one point nearly 400 adult volunteers each week. They

were served by a cafeteria, several rest rooms, a library, a gymnasium, a music room, an art center, lengthy hallways, an office, and a playground. Under ordinary administration, this school (which was nearly as large as my home town) was governed and organized as though it were an overgrown two-room school, or a single function, highly centralized agency, which in operation was not unlike a prison. The principal managed the school as though he had only one or two rooms to control; the teachers and the children expected life within the crowded building to be directed by one person. Each room was an isolated unit in which life was institutional and centralized, and few people felt responsible for the quality of life in the whole school. People might know the teachers and some of the children in nearby cells, but "those people on second floor South" and "those big children" were alien strangers between whom the central administration attempted to prevent warfare or unfair competition. Life in this institution did have its own peculiar pattern (Sarason call it the constitution and describes its accompanying regularities), which developed more by accident, chance, and trial and error than from any conscious effort to teach it. Because no one thought he was in a community, each new person had to bumble his way through the complicated style of the communications systems. And every new adult or child created a new mix that was seldom fully comprehended by those affected. The school was a centrally controlled living unit made up of strangers, people who didn't know what they were contributing or could contribute to the life of the whole group. It was filled with problems that were attributed to size. But the problems really came about because the organization and the ways of inducting strangers were inappropriate for well-coordinated and self-directed functioning in a community that size. It was similar to many schools in which teachers as well as pupils are depersonalized, lonely, alienated, and anxious--a condition that can be greatly ameliorated if the school is organized, governed, and operated on a community model that characterizes the essential life style processes in my home town:

Each person fulfills a function that is important to the total life of the community; he is taught how to fulfill that function before he is expected to carry it out.

Each person is part of a small group (usually a family) of no more than two to four people with whom he relates intimately and from whom he received security and solace, as well as detailed interpretations of events and instructions that are incomprehensible to him.

Each of the small family units has a great deal of autonomy in determining what goes on in their confines, and each disciplines itself. Everyone is taught how to live by the rules governing at least the most usual and routine daily activities.

Every unit is linked through some communications system with every other unit on which it depends and is more or less knowledgeable about what happens in other parts of the community. Nearly everyone knows everyone else in some manner.

Strangers are inducted into the community to the degree that it is necessary for them to live there. Newcomers who plan to stay are adopted by some resident (usually a neighbor) who makes it a point of business to help them get settled.

Administrators are well known and have recognized powers, but they know better than to meddle in other peoples' business or intrude on others' territory.

Governance operations are largely in the background and not highly visible in the daily life of the community.

Many citizens have direct ways to convey grievances against officials.

These are the rudimentary essentials of administering a school as a community and as a living place. They go far beyond (though they generally include in some fashion) the principles involved in administering a factory or a prison. And it should be noted that they are the only principles of administration that can turn the school into a living curriculum for life intself.

Excerpted from: "A Proposal to Remake the Principalship" by William W. Wayson. National Elementary Principal (September/ October, 1974), Pp. 33-34.

A FACULTY MEETING TO IMPROVE A SCHOOL

Often a faculty can't find a place to begin working to overcome problems even when everyone feels that a lot of problems exist. The trick is to get a list of problems and then to find out which ones are most important to the staff and which ones people want to tackle. The following method for doing that has been used by many faculties and is described in an article (Eileen Breckrinridge, "Improving School Climate", Phi Delta Kappan, December, 1976). The idea apparently orginated with William Maynard, former principal of Seattle's Cleveland High School which overcame many problems that other schools feel can't be solved.

Step one: Have each person write a private list of concerns about the school.
Step two: With three people in each group, have groups consolidate the individual lists. Each person has the assignment to "make sure that all items get on the consolidated list". No one may criticize any entry.
Step three: Pair groups of three to make groups of six. Have those larger groups consolidate the lists created in the trios and write them on chart paper. (Variation: Have them read aloud by each group while someone records on chart paper.)
Step four: Hang the chart paper around the walls and give each condern an identifying letter or letters. (A to Z, AA to ZZ).
Step five: Have each person in the room rank the problems in terms of importance. (Variations: rank in terms of interest or willingness to work on the problem or solvability.)
Step six: Compute the average rank assigned each problem and post the average on the charts (Note: this process can be speeded by having each participant compute part of the rankings.)
Step seven: Select the top ten (or some other number) concerns based upon the average ranks assigned.
Step eight: Have individuals volunteer to work on one of the problems that appear in the top rankings.
Step nine: Use some problem-solving strategy to move toward solution and to teach faculty members how to tackle other problems.

Reprinted from Steps, A Publication of the Illinois/Indiana Race Desegregation Assistance Center, Indiana University, January, 1980 (by William W. Wayson and G.S. Pinnell)

STEPS FOR MAKING THE SYSTEM WORK FOR YOU

Every organization has people who accomplish far more than others. Those people from various types of organizations - schools, businesses, religious orders - tend to report a common formula for getting things done:

1. Never ask permission; learn to inform without begging approval.
2. Write and be prepared to give 3 reasons why you think the action will be effective.
3. When things go wrong, take responsibility for cleaning up the consequences.
4. Be honest throughout the process.

by

William W. Wayson

*from A Handbook for Teachers at Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. Elementary School, Syracuse, N.Y. 1969-1970.

Classroom Observers

CLASSROOM OBSERVERS

One of the most valuable sources of feedback is other people. Administrators, resource people, classroom teachers all can serve as classroom observers.

The instrument which follows is intended to be used by the observer as a guideline for things to look for in a classroom. Remember, classroom observers, to make your comments helpful and constructive ones. Give the teacher information he can use to better his teaching.

Don't wait until you are having problems to request observation. It is nice to know what you are doing right as well as what mistakes you may be making.

Guide to Classroom Observation

This series of questions is intended as a guide to observation, not as an instrument of classroom evaluation. Although it is not exhaustive, it should help you direct your attention to some important areas of activity. Your evaluation, then, of what you observe will depend largely upon your own values.

Teacher Role

How much of the activity is initiated by the teacher?

Does the teacher remain involved in activities he/she initiates?

Does the teacher act as the source of information or does he direct students to various sources? Do the students know the various sources of information?

How much of the teacher's activity appears to be planned? Spontaneous? Is the teacher comfortable with spontaneity.

Does the teacher act as the evaluator of students' activity? Constantly? Occasionally? Seldom? Do the students ever evaluate themselves?

Does the teacher delegate various classroom functions to students or assume most of them him/herself?

Classroom Observers

When the teacher speaks to the students, what is the tone? Paternalistic? Fraternalistic? Helpful? Challenging? Involved (concerned)? Detached?

What does the teacher do?

Are there rules and procedures which are obviously mutually understood? Does the teacher act as an enforcer of rules? Is there self-enforcement among the students? Are routine matters routine? Does everyone know that routine (such as where things belong)?

Is the student-teacher relationship one of discipline-master? Partners in a dialogue? Learner-facilitator? Does the teacher participate in learning?

Does the teacher obviously enjoy what he is doing?

Student Role

How much of the activity is initiated by the students?

At any given moment, what are the students doing? All the same thing? Several different things? A wide variety of things? If there is a variety of activities, are they compatible?

Is the student only a receiver of information or are students sources of information, too?

Do the students obviously know and follow a routine? Even in a nonstructured activity, do certain basic rules appear to be operating?

Do the students obviously enjoy what they are doing?

Do the students seek the evaluation of the teacher? Follow techniques of self-evaluation or of mutual student evaluation.

Do the students have any functions in the classroom besides those of being a student? Are these delegated by the teacher? By class consensus? Assumed individually? Seized?

Besides studying, what do the students do?

How much student interaction is there? Is it part of the class routine? Is it helpful to students? Is it approved by the teacher? Encouraged?

Do students clearly understand and accept their role(s)?

Classroom Observers

Physical Environment

Is the environment mainly teacher created? Student created? Created mutually by students and teacher?

Is there a general theme or themes in the physical environment? Neatness? Variety? Flexibility?

Does the physical environment enhance the proposed activities of the class? (Consider light, color, availability of materials, placement of materials and other objects, etc.)

Is more attention given to the physical environment than to what happens within it?

Activities

Are they standard or varied?

Do they follow a pattern (even if the pattern is a loose one)?

Are they appropriate to the maturity and interest levels of the students?

Are directions clearly defined and understood?

Do students have a choice of activities? Always? At certain times?

If there is a variety of activities, are the various activities compatible? Do they enhance each other? Do they compete with each other?

Are materials available appropriate to the proposed activities?

What is the basic student responsibility for his activity? "Complete all work?" "Try hard?" "Do as much as you can, but do it well?" "Correct all your own work?" "Show the teacher what you have done before going out?"

Do the students and the teacher recognize a sterility of the typical classroom as a learning environment and the inadequacy of the teacher as the primary source of content? Is the community used as a classroom? Are other resources used?

WHAT CAN PRINCIPALS DO TO REWARD STAFF MEMBERS?

Principals often hold a narrow view that sees only salary, money, and promotions as rewards. Principals control some significant resources which are powerfully motivating for some teachers and other staff members. The following list of potential rewards has been expanded from "View of the Leadership Shortage in School Buildings" by William Wayson (Chapter Four in The Principal in Metropolitan Schools, edited by Donald A. Erikson and Theodore L. Reller, McCutchan, Berkeley, California: McCutcheon, 1978). In average schools with no more than normal resources, principals control and distribute many rewards as they:

- assign rooms and space;
- turn over leadership functions such as running faculty meetings;
- allocate responsibilities such as designing the duty schedule or the cafeteria arrangements;
- give teachers a chance to tell local clubs and groups about the school;
- create schedules that sometimes free teachers to perform educational functions outside the school (such as scouting for free or inexpensive materials and equipment, making home visits, or representing the school at local business clubs);
- give others credit for problems solved in the school;
- free teachers from things they think limit their ability to produce;
- enable teachers to work with children whom they find rewarding;
- get teachers' names and pictures in local news media;
- promote teachers' personal contact with school and community leaders;

- find ways to let teachers select and utilize materials; and
- involve teachers in curriculum planning.

Those and others can be allocated in ways that elicit high-level personal and professional contributions to the school. For many personnel they are more powerful motivators than money -- especially in a profession where everyone gets the same raise regardless of their contribution.

What Characteristics of Schools Cause Disruptive Behaviors?*

Few people, even those immediately occupied in America's schools, are aware of how rapidly and thoroughly our schools have become highly impersonal, depersonalizing institutions. Administrative and instructional practices, adopted with little recognition of their consequences, have become widely accepted in the education profession and have imperceptibly introduced miseducational and maladaptive procedures that are unquestioned and uncorrected in classrooms, schools, school districts, and colleges. Often those practices have been initiated to correct some genuine problem; so, they have gained wide acceptance and are now grounded in highly organized vested interests. For example,

> not too many years ago, teachers often had to teach (or at least be in their rooms) during the full day and cover various duties at lunchtime as well. They justifiably demanded some time free of children and "non-classroom" duties. Many school boards have granted free time by assigning lunchtime duties to paraprofessional or volunteer personnel. In that process, teachers lost contact with children engaged in activities outside the restraints of classroom roles and tasks; consequently, instructors lost much of the respect and trust that could be gained from freer interaction with children outside classrooms. School personnel were removed still further from their clients with a loss in both instructional and disciplinary rapport. Teachers could have gotten badly needed time free of children without the loss of rapport if problem solvers had been aware that teachers' lunch times do not have to coincide with children's and that extra classroom duties often bear more than casual relationship to effective instruction.

That illustration is only one of many maladaptive practices that have been introduced into schools since 1950, creating conditions that cause and sometimes teach delinquent behaviors, Critics should bear in mind that the practices were introduced to solve problems and the resultant ill effects often are imperceptible to people directly involved.

Current concepts of school administration have produced many of the following characteristics which often cause discipline problems in schools

> Centralization of decision-making about even the most minute aspects of school practice with resultant loss of status and responsibility for teachers and middle-level administrators. The trend is inherent in negotiated contracts as well as in administrative practice.

*Excerpted from Creating Non-Disruption-Prone Schools by W.W. Wayson

Specialization of functions that are inseparable from the teaching function, resulting in loss of status and influence for teachers and ineffectiveness in instruction. Both administrators and teachers have pressed for specialization.

Reduction of choices and discretionary action for administrators, teachers and students in classrooms and in interstitial areas (even as the curriculum was expanded to provide more choices among curricular offerings).

Standardized procedures resulting in loss of individuality for students as well as instructors and mechanization of relationships within the school.

Separation within the school--classroom from classroom, department from department, youth from age, subject matter from subject matter, administration from teachers, persons from persons, and professionals from clientele--resulting in fractionation of effort, communication problems, and alienation among persons and groups.

Isolation of classrooms from other parts of the school (playground, cafeterias, halls) creating "no-man's-land" for which few people feel responsibility.

Isolation from parents and other community forces, reducing understanding and support and often exacerbating tensions within the school.

The problems produced by these trends are worsened in those schools serving ethnic, economic and racial minorities because of cultural stereotypes and the human tendency to believe that everyone should experience the world in some prototypical (usually an idiosyncratically-defined) way.

Such practices have been so universally accepted (they are now well into their third generation of proponents) the few question their validity. They have become normative; supportive structures and processes are well-established. Consequently, practicing educators have not learned behaviors or attitudes needed to overcome or at least to control the unanticipated ill effects. Miseducational outcomes, disruptive behavior, and lowered achievement often result. The organizational dynamics comprise a more encompassing, more pervasive, hence more powerful curriculum than planned classroom instruction can hope to overcome.

Many behaviors observed in schools are heavily influenced by organizational attributes which are not directly related to classroom instruction.

A. Patterns of communication, problem-solving, and decision-making. Generally, more open, multi-directional, widespread and effective, patterns are related to fewer disruptive behaviors and greater feelings of responsibility among teachers and students.

B. Patterns of authority relationships. Generally, fewer barriers to communication and action, more involvement in exercising authority, smaller status differences, and broader conceptions of what constitutes proper professional behavior are related to a more responsive system, more widespread sense of responsibility and greater commitment among staff and students to meet duties and carry our decisions.

C. Procedures for developing, preparing and implementing rules. Generally, when rules are made by the people involved and when expectations are clearly understood, there are fewer transgressions. The more nearly rules are derived from principles of learning and understanding of normal human behavior, the more effective they are. The more the school operates like a community as opposed to a prison or army, the fewer the problems.

D. Relationships with parents and community forces. Generally, more open transactions with parents and other community members result in better opportunity to improve achievement and behavior within the school. This stipulation has little to do with the "neighborhood school" concept (since most such schools exhibit poor relationships) but is a product of interaction with whatever parents and other agencies are served by the school regardless their geographic location.

E. Processes for dealing with personal problems. Generally, greater recognition that people within the school are complete persons who have lives outside the school and problems that are not directly related to school matters and more responsive school mechanisms stimulate greater commitment to participate fully in the work of the school.

F. Curriculum and instructional practices. More broadly conceived concepts of curriculum, with content and processes appropriate for the students served and greater variety and deversity tend to reduce discipline problems within the school.

Those six organizational characteristics constitute a living curriculum that teaches students and teachers "how we behave around here." Those learnings are subtle but they constitute the tradition, rules and habits that are the norms of the school. Those norms strongly influence what people do in the school.

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THE DISCIPLINE CONTEXT INVENTORY: SCHOOLS THAT TEACH SELF-DISCIPLINE

Introduction

Lack of discipline, when it occurs, is a problem in schools. A larger problem occurs when school personnel forget, or never learn, that both discipline and the lack of discipline are learned. Daily life within the school teaches one or the other; in those schools that seem to have the best discipline, faculty members--or a significant number of them--consciously strive to create school practices that teach students to think for themselves, to accept responsibility for themselves and for life within the school, and to behave appropriately even when no adults are present and no rule tells what to do. In the rush to control disruptive behavior, resources can be needlessly wasted in trying to change or dominate students. Much more is to be gained by changing elements in the school system that cause disruptive behaviors.

At least four out of every five disruptions are the result of some disfunction in the way the school or the classroom runs. Life for both faculty and students is more enjoyable and productive if those disfunctions are changed or removed. Some readers may find the concept difficult to understand or to agree with because as students they never thought the school could be "wrong" and they always

thought of discipline as obedience. Perhaps the following illustrations will help to clarify how school life can cause disruptive behaviors:

> Teachers often feel they have no say about the policies or the curriculum handed down to them. They may resent those policies and either "slack off" on the job or withdraw into their classrooms and take no responsibility for what occurs anywhere else in the school or on school premises.
>
> School organization and schedules tend to isolate teachers from one another. Teachers often form "camps" and encourage student misbehavior by childishly bickering among departments or between wings, floors, or grade levels.
>
> Every time the bell rings or the intercom blares a message, classrooms are disrupted for the next ten to twenty minutes.
>
> The school faculty has never agreed upon what "running in the hall" means; so, some punish students for walking swiftly while others permit near-footraces to go on. The staff splits on the question and spends the year passing rumors about the "sluffers" and the "slavedrivers" in their midst. "Hall duty" is increased and resentment follows. Most students walk; others go as fast as "the law allows."
>
> No one ever told the vice-principal that he/she did not have to meet every demand by a teacher, a parent, or the downtown office, and no college class taught how to deal with conflicting expectations

in productive ways. So, the vice-principal, trying to please, makes enemies of everyone while nursing ulcers because of the "bad" things he/she feels compelled to do to students.

No one in the school sees the playground as a learning place--just an extra nuisance which gets neglected. No one feels responsible for the area; the strongest kids dominate and their values determine what other students learn about how to behave and survive on the playground.

Everyone treats the bus driver as someone to get the kids to schools (and they are unwanted kids anyway) and as an unpleasant interruption in the otherwise smooth schedule of the school. So, the driver takes it out on students by being cold and unfriendly. Students retaliate with pranks and vandalism. The same cycle occurs with the custodial staff.

Many such illustrations could be given. Most readers can remember school practices that made them angry and resentful, unfair treatment that still hurts many years after graduation, teachers who could be "played off" against one another, teachers with "hang-ups" who could be frightened or manipulated, or classes so boring that "you had to do something to liven them up."

The discussion does not blame schools for poor discipline. No sane school person purposely tries to teach students misbehavior; but poor training experiences or lack of

DISCIPLINE CONTEXT INVENTORY:
INTRODUCTION

training, poor school organization, bad schedules, or inadequate curriculum cause many teachers and administrators unknowingly to teach poor discipline every day.

Discipline in a school is influenced strongly by the kinds of people who teach there, by the way those people relate to one another and to the problems within the school, by the way school policies and procedures treat both adults and students, and by the traditions and habits that govern what people do in the school. Seven aspects of the school are very important in teaching either good or poor discipline:

1) the way people work together to solve problems or to make decisions about how the school operates;

2) the way authority is distributed and used in the school;

3) the way rules are stated, understood and enforced;

4) the quality, layout, and utilization of the building and the grounds;

5) relationships with parents and the surrounding community;

6) the way in which personal problems are handled; and

7) the formal curriculum and the style of instruction.

DISCIPLINE CONTEXT INVENTORY: INTRODUCTION

The quality of both discipline and academic achievement is closely related to one of those influences. Generally, several of them are all tied up in one package. They all combine to make a "living curriculum" that teaches students and school personnel "how we behave around here." To the degree that they cause the school to be disruption-prone they must be fundamentally changed or disruptions will continue, no matter what may be done (or at what cost) to individual students who are disruptive. Improving discipline can be accomplished best by examining those parts of school life and by improving them.

The remainder of this chapter is an inventory of school practices and characteristics that affect discipline. School principals, teachers, parents or students may use the Discipline Context Inventory to identify conditions that can be altered to make the school less disruption-prone. Though changing such conditions is not an easy matter, doing so represents the best long-term investment for yielding positive discipline both in schools and in American society.

THE DISCIPLINE CONTEXT INVENTORY*

The inventory is not a "score card" or an objective test. It is a working guide that can be useful for school personnel, students, and parents to analyze programs, to identify problem areas on which they wish to work, and to take actions to reduce disruption or lack of discipline in their schools.

DIRECTIONS: Circle a number to rate your school on a scale of 0 to 5 relative to the following criteria. A rating of 0 indicates that the statement is not at all true of your school. A rating of 5 indicates that the statement is clearly true of your school.

1. Patterns of communication, problem-solving, and decision-making. Generally, more open, multi-directional, widespread and effective patterns are related to fewer disruptive behaviors and greater feelings of responsibility among teachers and students.

1.1	0 1 2 3 4 5	Faculty meetings are for staff development and for problem solving.
1.2	0 1 2 3 4 5	Faculty members communicate concerns about district policies to central administration and modify those policies for their students' benefit.
1.3	0 1 2 3 4 5	A sense of direction and mutual purpose is shared among a significant number of staff, students, and (to some extent) parents. (They can describe some goals and achievements in specific, understandable terms.)
1.4	0 1 2 3 4 5	Students participate in solving the problems of the classroom and the school.
1.5	0 1 2 3 4 5	The school district expects problems to be solved by local staff and community.
1.6	0 1 2 3 4 5	The school district provides time and consultants to aid in solving problems.
1.7	0 1 2 3 4 5	Adults in the school recognize their own responsibilities for handling situations or for solving problems that affect themselves or the students.
1.8	0 1 2 3 4 5	A large number of the personnel (staff and students) are involved in the school's activities--in planning and in implementing. Participation is high and widely distributed. Nearly all members feel that the school belongs to them, and each feels he can make a difference in it.
1.9	0 1 2 3 4 5	Staff and students exhibit a sense of accomplishing something that they feel is important, giving a positive tone to the climate of the school.
1.10	0 1 2 3 4 5	Adults recognize their own problems rather than taking them out on the students.
1.11	0 1 2 3 4 5	Adults communicate clearly with one another about significant educational matters.
1.12	0 1 2 3 4 5	Teachers are relaxed and unafraid with their students.
1.13	0 1 2 3 4 5	Teachers know the names of their students, not only those in their classrooms but others in the school.
1.14	0 1 2 3 4 5	Adults know how to keep from causing discipline problems caused by adults, by school procedures or by the school organization.
1.15	0 1 2 3 4 5	Problems do not fester; they are identified and resolved. The question, "What can we do?" replaces the sentiment, "It can't be done."

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2. Patterns of authority relationships. Generally, fewer barriers to communication and action, more involvement in exercising authority, smaller status differences, and broader conceptions of what constitutes proper professional behavior are related to a more responsive system, more widespread sense of responsibility and greater commitment among staff and students to meet duties and carry out decisions.

2.1	0 1 2 3 4 5	Status differences that imply inferiority or superiority of one group over another or lead to closed or limited communications are eliminated.
2.2	0 1 2 3 4 5	No one ignores problems, refuses to do what needs to be done, or says "it's not my job."
2.3	0 1 2 3 4 5	Administrators' expectations are clearly communicated.
2.4	0 1 2 3 4 5	Staff generally agree upon what principals, teachers, aides, etc., ought to do or are expected to do in given circumstances--no misconceptions and wrong impressions.
2.5	0 1 2 3 4 5	Teachers are able to communicate concerns, questions, or constructive ideas to "superiors."
2.6	0 1 2 3 4 5	Each level accepts criticism from lower levels.
2.7	0 1 2 3 4 5	School secretaries, aides, custodians, and other school staff (including bus drivers whenever possible) participate in faculty meetings and inservice sessions.
2.8	0 1 2 3 4 5	Parents participate in classrooms and school activities and are represented in most faculty meetings and inservice sessions.
2.9	0 1 2 3 4 5	Students take responsibility for enforcing the agreed upon pattern of relationships with their peers and with teachers and administrators.
2.10	0 1 2 3 4 5	When decisions are made and procedures established, the educational growth of individual students takes priority over concerns such as adult convenience, pleasing superiors, saving face, or maintaining tradition.
2.11	0 1 2 3 4 5	Responsibilities and "territories" are shared and respected; people are not possessive nor are they fearful that someone will "take over" their job, space, or materials. They say "our school" and "our students" not "mine."
2.12	0 1 2 3 4 5	Teachers help one another solve problems rather than criticizing teachers or students.

3. Procedures for developing, preparing and implementing rules. Generally, when rules are made by the people involved and when expectations are clearly understood, there are fewer transgressions. The more nearly rules are derived from principles of learning and understanding of normal human behavior, the more effective they are. The more the school operates like a community as opposed to a prison or army, the fewer the problems.

3.1	0 1 2 3 4 5	Rules and expectations are clearly defined, stated, and communicated so that people know what to do.
3.2	0 1 2 3 4 5	Students are involved in rule-making.
3.3	0 1 2 3 4 5	Rules are made by the people who must enforce them.
3.4	0 1 2 3 4 5	Disciplinary techniques are used to teach positive ways of behaving, not to punish or to teach blind obedience.
3.5	0 1 2 3 4 5	A few good rules are made and enforced; too many rules cannot be enforced.

3.6	0 1 2 3 4 5	Rules are enforced in a way that will reinforce the behavior that is desired.
3.7	0 1 2 3 4 5	Rules can be enforced.
3.8	0 1 2 3 4 5	Due process is applied before punishment.
3.9	0 1 2 3 4 5	Students and others are assumed to be innocent until proven guilty of infractions.
3.10	0 1 2 3 4 5	A complete description of what transpired during any behavioral sequence is expected from adults and students.
3.11	0 1 2 3 4 5	Teachers are not assumed to be "right" all the time but are accepted as human beings.
3.12	0 1 2 3 4 5	Students are not punished if it is obviously unnecessary (i.e., it has no educational outcome).
3.13	0 1 2 3 4 5	Students take responsibility for their actions
3.14	0 1 2 3 4 5	Rules apply only to relevant behavior and not to matters that are trivial, highly personal, or have no effect upon the school or class.
3.15	0 1 2 3 4 5	Rules and disciplinary techniques are examined and revised to prevent negative educational outcomes such as lower self-respect, dislike for school, lack of responsibility for own behavior, sense of helplessness, etc.
3.16	0 1 2 3 4 5	Students are included as members of the school.

4. Physical environment. Generally, the environment in which school activities take place provides a setting which is pleasant; is convenient for adults and students to work; and reflects the interests, culture, values, and activities of students. The more the school environment looks like a workshop, a library, a restaurant, or a conference center and the less like a prison or institution, the fewer the problems.

4.1	0 1 2 3 4 5	Meeting and social areas are not crowded.
4.2	0 1 2 3 4 5	Adequate materials are available and they are organized for easy access and clean-up.
4.3	0 1 2 3 4 5	The physical environment is well organized to permit a maximum of student independence and behavior.
4.4	0 1 2 3 4 5	Necessary space and adequate facilities are available for student work.
4.5	0 1 2 3 4 5	The environment is well-planned to accommodate movement within and between classrooms and large group areas.
4.6	0 1 2 3 4 5	The cafeteria has places where small groups can sit, eat, and talk quietly together.
4.7	0 1 2 3 4 5	Use is made of "nooks and crannies" where individuals may be alone to think, read or work.
4.8	0 1 2 3 4 5	Places are designed where small groups can work together without having to talk loudly to be heard.
4.9	0 1 2 3 4 5	Students' work is displayed in classrooms, display cases, corridors, and cafeterias.

4.10 0 1 2 3 4 5 Students are involved in planning school decorations.

4.11 0 1 2 3 4 5 Students and staff members feel responsible for keeping the school environment attractive and clean.

4.12 0 1 2 3 4 5 Students have a place in the school; they may use the facilities freely as long as there is consideration for other students and for adults.

4.13 0 1 2 3 4 5 Adults and students are able to analyze "trouble areas" in the environment and make provision to solve problems.

4.14 0 1 2 3 4 5 The environment is well-designed acoustically.

4.15 0 1 2 3 4 5 Traffic patterns are analyzed to eliminate causes for discipline problems.

5. Relationships with parents and community forces. Generally, more open transactions with parents and other community members result in better opportunity to improve achievement and behavior within the school. This stipulation has little to do with the "neighborhood school concept" (since many so-called schools exhibit poor relationships) but is a product of interaction with whatever parents and other agencies are served by the school regardless their geographic locations.

5.1 0 1 2 3 4 5 Teachers and administrators frequently participate in groups, institutions, and organizations within the community which can offer support to students and to the school. (Ex., churches, clubs).

5.2 0 1 2 3 4 5 Teachers know the students' parents, homes, and community and frequently interact with them.

5.3 0 1 2 3 4 5 Teachers know the neighborhood, the street names, the stores, and the places of entertainment their students live with.

5.4 0 1 2 3 4 5 Teachers recognize the stereotypes they may hold about the students and the community and work to see students and parent as individuals; the school community works in various ways to break down stereotypes.

5.5 0 1 2 3 4 5 When necessary, attention is given to meeting basic needs of students from poor families through whatever resources are available without "spotlighting" them.

5.6 0 1 2 3 4 5 Children with special problems are diagnosed and help is provided in a manner that does not denigrate them or separate them from normal school activities.

5.7 0 1 2 3 4 5 Teachers know and respect the students' language, culture, and idiosyncrasies.

5.8 0 1 2 3 4 5 Teachers and other school personnel visit students' homes frequently.

5.9 0 1 2 3 4 5 Each teacher visits the home of every homeroom student (or advises) early in the school year (before any problems can arise).

6. Processes for dealing with personal problems. Generally, greater recognition that people within the school are complete persons who have lives outside the school and problems that are not directly related to school matters combined with responsive school processes stimulate greater commitment to participate fully in the work of the school.

6.1	0 1 2 3 4 5	Before rushing to solve a problem, people make it clear that there is a problem and define what it is.
6.2	0 1 2 3 4 5	Individual and cultural differences are respected and valued and are evident in the schools.
6.3	0 1 2 3 4 5	Adults and students recognize that even "good" people or "good" teachers have problems.
6.4	0 1 2 3 4 5	Students are permitted to have "low days"; teachers permit themselves to feel angry, to have "low days" or to make mistakes.
6.5	0 1 2 3 4 5	Adults see students and student behavior clearly without the tendency to see or to cause problems when there are none.
6.6	0 1 2 3 4 5	Adults do not force students to behave the way they think they are going to.
6.7	0 1 2 3 4 5	Students do not try to force adults to behave the way they expect.
6.8	0 1 2 3 4 5	Irrelevant behavior is not rewarded by undue attention.
6.9	0 1 2 3 4 5	Teachers are able to discern when a discipline incident is over.
6.10	0 1 2 3 4 5	Adults keep their "eyes on the ball"--that is, on what they want the student to do.
6.11	0 1 2 3 4 5	Teachers keep from escalating small problems into larger ones.
6.12	0 1 2 3 4 5	People express and discuss problems as they arise rather than tucking them away.
6.13	0 1 2 3 4 5	If a person has a problem with another, he or she discusses it directly with that person.
6.14	0 1 2 3 4 5	Both students and staff can speak about growth that has taken place, giving tangible examples of changes that have occurred in both adults and students.
6.15	0 1 2 3 4 5	All people in the school recognize and celebrate (even in small ways) when one of them achieves something good.
6.16	0 1 2 3 4 5	People help one another in ways that help them to become independent.
6.17	0 1 2 3 4 5	Teachers and students admit feelings that are causing them to behave inappropriately, but do not blame others for their own feelings.
6.18	0 1 2 3 4 5	Each student has a definite contact, preferably an advocate, on the faculty.
6.19	0 1 2 3 4 5	While discontented with the way things are, they focus on growing and do not punish themselves for being short of perfection.

7. Curriculum and instructional practices. More broadly conceived concepts of curriculum, with content and processes appropriate for the students served and greater variety and diversity tend to reduce discipline problems within the school.

7.1	0 1 2 3 4 5	The curriculum is seen as more than the content to be taught in subject matter classes.
7.2	0 1 2 3 4 5	Practices and procedures are related to the explicit goals of the school.
7.3	0 1 2 3 4 5	Field trips, outside speakers, and disciplinary practices are seen as ordinary teaching methods which teachers may utilize without extraordinary administrative procedures.
7.4	0 1 2 3 4 5	A variety of teaching styles are evident within the faculty.
7.5	0 1 2 3 4 5	Individual differences and a variety of learning styles are respected and accommodated.
7.6	0 1 2 3 4 5	Students may transfer from one teacher to another, or one program to another, depending upon their learning styles and the particular educational goals they seek.
7.7	0 1 2 3 4 5	Teachers choose the methods and materials which they can best use to achieve stated goals.
7.8	0 1 2 3 4 5	Teaching methods and instructional materials build on what the student already knows.
7.9	0 1 2 3 4 5	Students have choices in schedules and assignments.
7.10	0 1 2 3 4 5	The curriculum includes teaching students how to make choices.
7.11	0 1 2 3 4 5	Teaching methods provide for active learning and are neither boring nor frustrating.
7.12	0 1 2 3 4 5	Students believe the school offers what they need and find it interesting.
7.13	0 1 2 3 4 5	The student/teacher ratio is reasonably low.
7.14	0 1 2 3 4 5	Playgrounds, school buses, cafeterias, hallways, and lavatories are seen as places where students learn; teachers design and implement positive curriculum for those areas.
7.15	0 1 2 3 4 5	Students are frequently involved in learning activities outside the classroom and in the community.
7.16	0 1 2 3 4 5	Failure is accepted as a natural part of learning and growth.
7.17	0 1 2 3 4 5	All students are actively included in classroom and school activities, regardless of sex, race, religion, socio-economic status or academic ability.
7.18	0 1 2 3 4 5	Counterproductive practices are changed or eliminated as speedily as alternatives can be developed.

Discipline Context Inventory (page 11)

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Discipline Context Inventory (page 12)

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COMMON CAUSES
FOR POOR DISCIPLINE IN SCHOOLS

William W. Wayson, 1975

80% of school discipline problems are caused by adults and the adult system. Below are some of the causes:

°wrong impressions of what teachers ought to do -- or are expected to do -- in given circumstances;

°inability of adults to communicate clearly with one another about significant educational matters;

°misunderstanding of what administrators want and inability to communicate concerns, questions, or constructive ideas to "superiors";

°inability on part of adults to work together to solve problems;

°failure to recognize ones own responsibilities for handling situations or for solving problems that affect oneself or the students;

°tendency to take one's own problems out on students;

°feeling that "good" people shouldn't have problems, leading to a tendency to blind oneself to them, to hide them, or to ignore them until they are out of proportion;

°gunnysacking, tucking away little annoyances instead of dealing with them at the appropriate time. They pile up until they explode in some irrelevant situation;*

°getting led into rewarding deviant behavior because it is not ignored when it should be;

°inability to discern when a discipline incident is over;

°tendency to escalate small problems into larger ones;

°failure to have students own responsibility for their actions because they aren't included as members of the school;

°tendency to make rules at levels removed from contact with students and by people who don't enforce the rules;

°tendency to try to enforce rules at levels away from the behavior;

*sometimes leads to "kicking the dog" or displacing anger onto some innocent party who often cannot defend himself

- failure to create a climate of personal trust and communication among students, teachers and students, faculty members, and teachers and community;

- tendency on part of adults to force students to behave the way they think they are going to;

- tendency on part of students to force teachers and principals to behave the way they think they are going to;

- incomplete description of what transpired during a behavior sequence;

- tendency to try to rush to solve problems before it is clear there is a problem or what it is;

- failure to keep one's eyes on the ball--that is on what you want the student to do;

- seeing students and student behavior unclearly with a tendency to see or to cause problems when there are none;

- stating rules so unclearly that no one knows what they are expected to do;

- writing rules that cannot be enforced;

- failure to enforce rules in a way that will reinforce the behavior that is desired;

- having too many rules;

- creating rules to govern behavior that is irrelevant to or even opposed to good educational outcomes;

- lack of boundary penetration--adherence to strict definitions of what people in different positions are <u>supposed</u> to do; "It's not my job"; maintaining status differences that imply inferiority or superiority to one group over another; leads to closed or limited communications.

DO'S AND DON'TS ON DISCIPLINE

Discuss the following "Do's" and "Don'ts" concerning discipline.

DO	DON'T
1. Communicate with students and other school staff members.	1. Make excessive rules.
2. Treat all students equally, although not necessarily exactly the same.	2. Make rules that can't be enforced.
3. Treat students and fellow staff members, including the principal, as human.	3. Look at discipline as punishment.
4. Offer support and consideration to fellow staff members.	4. Give ultimatums.
5. If a person is wrong, explain it to him or her in private.	5. Force a student into a corner with no escape.
6. Have clear, understandable, enforceable rules.	6. Forget the student's side of the story.
7. Make sure everyone knows about the rules	7. Let problems drag on before approaching them.
8. Have staff inservice programs on discipline.	8. Criticize a person in front of others.
9. Stress preventative discipline.	9. Do everything yourself.
10. Practice what you preach.	10. Be afraid to ask for help.

Prepared by David Carter and John Anderson, 1976

PRACTICES THAT EFFECT GOOD DISCIPLINE

Remember that the goal of discipline as well as education is self discipline; thus, discipline is a matter for instruction rather than enforcement.

Discipline is the ability to identify the essential character of a situation or circumstance, to determine one's most constructive role in it, to carry out that role directly and to sustain it as long as necessary. Such skills are learned, not enforced, and should be a part of the curriculum. It is best taught by persons who are willing to impose it upon themselves.

The classroom can operate on two rules when they are understood and implemented fully: (1) No one can disrupt another's learning, and (2) Everyone has responsibility for asking questions until he clearly understands.

The goal of a teacher must not be a quiet classroom but a learning environment.

1. Develop and talk over with students definite guidelines for acceptable classroom behavior. Help the child know how he can "change things around here" through constructive channels.

2. Know each child well enough to know how he will usually react to a situation, to know what procedure will or will not work. "Cut the cloth to fit the pattern."

3. Make as much of your discipline as private as possible.

4. Be careful about "boxing yourself" into a corner. Private discipline can often help to prevent this.

5. Show a child that you do not condone vulgar language, but do not interrupt a lesson for a lengthy harangue about it. If you rob vulgar language of its shock value, it is often discontinued.

6. Praise good behavior. Children want acceptance. Try to show that good behavior is the way to be accepted.

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*From a Handbook for Teachers at Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. Elementary School, Syracuse, New York, 1969-70.

7. Humor often relieves tension.

8. Report good as well as bad work to parents.

9. Get to know parents. Help them to know you.

10. When children are working in groups, make some provision for children to get some help from others if they get "hung up." This will prevent their interrupting the teacher but will also not force them to sit and wait for long periods of time to get help. This strategy can prevent problems.

11. Avoid sarcasm and ridicule. They usually result in hostility rather than in improved behavior.

12. Try to foresee and prevent a confrontation from developing if possible. Once expectations are clearly stated (privately, if possible) the teacher's most constructive action is to "get out of the scene."

13. Avoid hostile physical contact. Try to convey a message by means of eye contact, a hand gesture, a glance, or a whispered word.

14. Be careful not to let a minor issue become a major crisis. Don't give an issue more attention than it deserves by over-reacting or escalating.

15. When you begin to get angry, hold on and "cool off" before acting. Know yourself and your touchy spots.

16. Remember that children need to save face. Try not to put them in a situation where they will lose face in front of peers. When they are in a tight spot. try to give them an opportunity to "save face." Teach them more about themselves and why they feel the way they do (but don't wait until there is a touchy situation before teaching how emotions influence behavior.)

17. Meaningful apologies should be spontaneous and voluntary. A child should never be forced to apologize. Teachers should apologize for their actions whenever necessary, helping children to see how human make and reconcile mistakes.

18. If a teacher makes a mistake, he/she should admit it to the class. Students respond positively when they realize that the teacher is "human."

19. In actual practice the teacher's position is always tenable. The child never perceives of himself as being able to "win" with an adult. A teacher, understanding and accepting this premise, need never feel the necessity to compete with a child "to win."

20. Teacher expectations for student classroom behavior should be consistent. However, the enforcement of rules for classroom behavior will vary with the individual.

21. Practice what you preach -- courtesy, respect, observance of safety rules, etc.

22. After a confrontation has occurred, analyze the situation to see if you handled it well. Ask your peers or your principal to react to the situation and tell how they would have handled it.

23. Avoid disrupting the whole class for an individual incident whenever possible. It is costly to stop instruction for an entire class.

24. Never punish innocent parties even at the risk of letting a guilty party go free. Of course, this means that a whole class should not be punished for the acts of a few.

25. Avoid giving "extra assignments" as a means of disciplining a child.

26. Teaching each child on his appropriate instructional level reduces frustration and often avoids confrontations.

27. Try to handle deviant behavior through education rather than punishment whenever possible.

28. Try to help a child to understand and accept his limitations. Never humiliate a child.

29. Criticize actions rather than the child. Doing so is a very difficult thing for most people. Ask someone to sit in and observe or tape record your session with the child so that you can get constructive feedback.

30. Provide success experiences for each child regardless of the grade level you are teaching.

31. Let the class help take some responsibility for plans. Pupil-teacher planning helps to set a good classroom climate.

32. Establish classroom procedures so that children will know what to expect.

33. Be firmer the first few weeks than you hope to be later. Demonstrate that you will enforce rules with no equivocation. This eliminates "testing behavior" and helps the child to know his environment.

34. Strive for a high degree of participation by all pupils. Ask yourself: (1) Am I providing opportunities for involving all children in every lesson? (2) Who does most of the talking in my class? (If you do, you're talking too much).

35. Be able to laugh at yourself.

36. Try not to create situations that encourage children to challenge your authority.

37. Try not to create situations that provide a child with no other alternative but to lie. Skilled and understanding questioning will most often lead to the truth.

38. Don't threaten anything you can't carry out -- better yet, don't threaten.

39. Listen to a child's side of any troublesome situation. It is important to hear what the child has to say. Develop a strategy, however, to allow the class to proceed. Then once the class is occupied, hold a private talk with the child. (Once a child knows you intend to talk with him, he is better able to wait).

40. Be on hand when the bell rings with prepared lessons and materials well in advance of their use.

41. Secure pupils' attention before starting a lesson. Begin your class promptly. No plan is perfect. Have alternate plans and materials to fill unexpected gaps.

42. When your students have started working on a project, avoid interrupting them. Unnecessary interruptions create distractions. This can lead to trouble.

43. Give homework assignments that provide a significant learning experience. Be sure that the pupil can do the work without a lot of assistance. Don't give homework if you don't make provisions for either classroom or teacher evaluation. A child should always know you have evaluated all assignments. Build in guarantees of success as often as possible.

44. Corridor control cannot be one teacher's job; it's <u>every</u> teacher's job <u>all the time</u>. While one teacher cannot do it alone, it only takes one teacher to wreck it. Whether on duty or off duty and whether your students or someone else's are involved, take responsibility for general school-side discipline.

45. Student behavior can be affected by physical surroundings. Have the room environment working for you, not against you, in establishing good classroom discipline.

46. Keep marks and discipline separate and apart. Don't use marks to punish children.

47. Effective discipline must be carried out as soon as possible. If a parent conference seems advisable, arrange one as soon as possible, preferably going immediately to the home. But don't expect the parent to do your job of maintaining discipline in the classroom.

48. Don't forget the substitute teacher. Teach your students early in the year what their attitude, behavior, and responsibilities should be when you are absent. Don't just order them to behave; <u>teach</u> them how to operate independently of you.

RULES FOR RULES

Rules are guidelines, established procedures, or agreements between people working in a social situation. Rules should be seen as methods for teaching behavior. While it is often necessary for the person in charge to make the rules, it should be recognized that it is important for those governed by the rules to understand the need or reasons for the rules and the behaviors the rules imply.

In a small handbook called Child Management, Donald and Judith Smith (Champaign, Illinois, Research Press Co., 1978) present some "rules for rules." The idea is that effective rules meet certain criteria. These criteria serve as guidelines for making rules. We have expanded upon those criteria to help school personnel make more effective educational rules.

1. A RULE MUST BE STATED AND TAUGHT IN SUCH A WAY THAT THOSE AFFECTED BY THE RULE CAN UNDERSTAND WHAT BEHAVIOR IS EXPECTED.

   It is difficult to know how to behave when a rule is something like "be good" or "don't misbehave" or "be a good citizen." When rules are defined in very broad generalities or in vague terms, people are at a loss. They must constantly look to the person in charge to determine what he or she means by "good" or "appropriate." Even when rules are clearly stated, the person making the rule must be sure to teach those affected by the rules the behaviors that are expected.

2. A RULE MUST BE REASONABLE.

   A rule is unreasonable if (1) the student cannot perform the required behavior; (2) there is no necessity to require the behavior; (3) the rule attempts to control or eliminate behavior that is normal and desirable for children, young people, or adults; or (4) the rule requires more resources to enforce than are feasible. Educators who make rules must constantly ask themselves "Is the rule necessary for meeting the educational needs of students?"

3. A RULE MUST BE ENFORCEABLE.

   Some rules are unreasonable. Others may be reasonable or unreasonable but for some reason are impossible to enforce. Making and trying to enforce such rules is frustrating and causes confusion and complications. Focus time and energy on rules which can be enforced.

4. ONCE A RULE IS MADE, ENFORCE IT EVERY TIME UNTIL THE NEW BEHAVIOR IS LEARNED.

   Smith and Smith suggest asking "what is the rule" when reminding students of the behavior needed. Once the rule has been taught and the adult knows that the expected behaviors are understood, he or she should try to get the child or young person to state the rule rather than the adult repeating it over and over.

5. IGNORE BEHAVIOR NOT COVERED BY THE RULE.

   Youngsters may engage in distracting behavior such as pouting, tears, belligerance, or bursts of temper. Such behavior might be called a "game" to distract the adult from enforcing the rule. The rule enforcer should try to concentrate on enforcing the rule--on GETTING THE DESIRED BEHAVIOR.

Steps

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STAFF ROLES FOR CREATING QUALITY INTEGRATED SCHOOLS

By Gay Su Pinnell and
William W. Wayson

Creating any good program requires the fullest efforts of a cooperating, knowledgeable, and skillful staff. Providing quality integrated education in a newly desegregated school depends upon the highest staff commitment and effort. If success is judged by positive experiences for students, staff efforts can "make it or break it."

Any improvement in a school requires that at least a few people on the staff do some things differently. Every change affects staff members in some way. No method or material is teacher proof. Yet, "innovations" have often been introduced as though the staff were so many mechanical parts or as though some clairvoyance enabled them to grasp every implication without preparation. The weakest part of any change in school program or curriculum in the past has been failure to prepare the staff to perform all of the functions necessary for the change to succeed. For example, team teaching did not achieve its promise because teachers have never been trained to work with peers (indeed with any adults) in problem-solving ways. Informal or "open" education lost ground in many communities because teachers were ill-prepared to educate parents to recognize signs of progress other than silent study, textbook pages, report cards and standard assignments. Other innovations have failed because secretaries, principals, specialists, or even custodians were asked to change without understanding how the change fit into a whole picture.

Even without innovations, schools have come to operate as though staff members are mechanical and not human. The teacher's role has been reduced through centralized decision-making, added specialists, and inadequate training so that many teachers act as walking textbooks. Much of the low achievement, poor discipline, and low public confidence found in today's schools occurs because we have forgotten that the most powerful curriculum is the pattern of interpersonal relationships within the school.

Demeaning Role Expectations

All organizations tend to believe that subordinates are incapable and inferior. Policies and procedures often create conditions that prove the belief. That is what has happened to teachers in the past several decades: common practices in schools and in the certification process have made teachers unable to perform some important professional and personal functions. As a result many teachers have lost self confidence, community status and professional prestige. Somebody else decides who will be taught and what materials will be used. Somebody else has to settle personal disputes because teachers have not been taught basic rudiments of interpersonal relations or group problem-solving. Somebody else has to take "problem" children because the teacher has been conditioned to a role that is ineffective with differences or varieties. Somebody else has to deal with parents

(cont'd on p.2)

LOOKING FOR PROBLEMS TO SOLVE: CAUSES OF POOR DISCIPLINE AND ACHIEVEMENT IN NEWLY DESEGREGATED SCHOOLS

Our work with newly desegregated schools (including being principal in two of them) indicates some common causes of poor discipline, poor achievement and poor community relations in schools serving any population whose lives differ from the one thought "normal" or "acceptable" by school personnel. Any of the causes can be relieved once the staff recognizes them.

1. Lack of staff knowledge about minority students, their culture, or their community;
2. Lack of visible and felt student belongingness in the school;
3. Ineffective communication among staff members to solve, as opposed to complain about, problems;
4. Failure to think positively or to keep problems in perspective with positive features of the school;
5. Failure to adapt the curriculum to student levels of operation or styles of learning or to incorporate those things that students already respect; and
6. Unresolved discrepancies between school personnel and students and amoung parents' views of what is and what should be occurring in the school (exacerbated by "a" above).

(Cont'd from page 1)

(and gain the parents' respect) because the teacher has hot been prepared to deal effectively with other adults (indeed, most teacher training and school operations enhances teachers' fear of adults.) Effective school staffs have overcome those demeaning limitations and have learned more productive and fulfilling adult responsibilities and relationships. The heart of any school improvement program that hopes to improve achievement, establish good self-discipline, and win community support must enrich the teachers' and other staff members' roles. Staff members must be enabled to take more responsible and rewarding roles than those we see in typical schools. Any staff member who wants increased self-fulfillment, status and effectiveness will have to actively seek fuller participation in the life of the school, students' lives and community affairs.

Who is the Instructional Staff?

All members of the staff-secretaries, custodians, cafeteria workers, paraprofessionals, bus drivers, and others--teach students in various ways. They should all be involved in faculty meetings and social events. Together with classroom teachers, they interact with students to create the daily life that teaches "how it is done here." The combined actions of the school staff create a living "curriculum" which teaches the norms of the school. Full staff involvement can be used to build peer values that enhance quality education and can counteract the mediocrity, isolation, alienation and irresponsibility that characterize many schools. Everyone on the staff must feel that he or she belongs, that he or she is valued and important, and that it is worthwhile to be a part of the school.

Making Decisions Makes Better Staffs

Nothing builds a sense of belonging and importance better than having to make decisions and solve problems that are important for the life of the school. Making

such decisions builds understanding, forges communication linkages, consolidates commitment, and increases the chances of successful adoption of whatever decision is made. But the decision-making must not be play-acting; it must have consequences that prove that spending the time and energy was worthhwhile. Here are a few criteria for involving staff in effective decision-making:

1. The problem has to be real for the participants. They must seriously feel the need and must "hurt" if it doesn't get solved or if a "bad" solution is implemented.

2. The group should decide the importance of the problem. If they think the problem is important, it is. Success in solving small problems leads to success with large ones.

3. The problem must be stated so that the group can use its own resources to solve it. The group should not be at the mercy of some other person or group.

4. Preferably, whatever solution the group adopts will be implemented and any consequences--good or bad--must be focused back upon those who made the decision. If that isn't possible, every evidence must be given that the group's recommendations were seriously considered.

5. Staff (or other decision-makers) have to know that they can change decisions if evidence shows they were ill-conceived.

These are not easy criteria to meet, primarily because the traditions in schools have conditioned staff members

WHAT MAKES
IMPROVEMENTS STICK

In 1978 the Rand Corporation submitted a series of reports on a major study of federally-financed innovations in education, including ESEA Innovative Projects, Bilingual Programs, Vocational Education, and Right-to-Read. Paul Berman and Milbray McLaughlin (in Federal Programs Supporting Educational Change, VOL.III: Implementing and Sustaining Innovations) summarize the elements which, when done well, had positive effects on the results of projects. Those elements are important in any effort to improve school programs. They are:

1. Teacher participation in project decisions from the earliest possible moment.

2. Concrete, continuing staff development directly related to teachers' problems.

3. Regular meetings for all related personnel focusing on problem-solving and not on administrative routine.

4. Local materials development with the mutual creative process being prized more than the quality of the materials.

5. Active principal's participation in training programs rather than standing by.

6. Classroom assistance from project or district staff giving pratical advise on an "on call" basis.

7. Observing similar projects in other classrooms or districts with discussions with the other project's staff.

to feel that someone else makes the decisions and pays the prices. But there are dozens of decisions that have consequences for a staff and those consequences can be focused to give them incentive to make life more comfortable by entering into active, adult-level decision-making.

Staff members should be involved in many of the decisions that are necessary to operate a school. While doing so, they can increase their knowledge and skills in ways that will benefit the students with whom they work. Here are some examples of decisions which the total school staff or small groups could make:

- creating and implementing a real living philosophy for the school;
- selecting materials for media centers and libraries and for their own classes;
- planning the school schedule as well as schedules for duties and special events such as field days;
- planning and operating inservice sessions throughout the year;
- creating a "Bill of Rights" for teachers and other people in the school;
- locating resources (including time) for their programs;
- supervising paraprofessionals and volunteers;
- providing special inservice for custodians, secretaries, and paraprofessionals to help them see their roles as teachers;
- educating parents to understand the teacher's program;
- selecting new staff members;
- structuring the roles of specialists; and
- evaluating the services of specialists to improve effectiveness.

Minds Meet at Staff Meetings

Meeting time is a scarce and precious resource. It is not time to waste; rather every effort should be made to secure more time for small group, team, committee, and total staff meetings and to make it productive for problem-solving or staff development.

To many people, staff meetings mean going over trivial and routine matters. In a typical school staff meeting, the principal does most of the talking, giving directives and making general announcements. Teachers ask questions or make terse comments related to their own areas of interest or their own complaints. Generally, other staff members are not present. John Bates reports using a different pattern in several schools in Toronto, Canada. Announcements and routine matters are circulated in written bulletins. Staff meetings are devoted to problem-solving and highly relevant inservice, such as exploring the "benchmarks" of student learning. Staff members generate lists of ways to tell whether students are learning. They describe concrete evidences of the levels at which students are operating. Between staff meetings, they collect pieces of student work and observations of student behavior which illustrate the "benchmarks." The collected work is discussed in the meeting and serves as tangible illustration of learning at various levels. No staff member has to use meaningless jargon while helping parents and others understand how the school is achieving its goals.

Staff meetings should use a problem-solving format and should result in cooperative staff involvement in the processes of the school. Meetings should encourage open discussion of issues and reduce staff's susceptibility to rumors and lounge gossip. Staff may need a number of inservice sessions on how to conduct staff meetings that develop mutual support and problem-solving

capabilities. Strength bombardment and other problem-solving strategies which are described in this newsletter are helpful techniques for improving staff meetings. Schmuck and Runkel, et. al.. (Second Handbook of Organization Development in Schools, Mayfield Publishing Co., 1977) present many practical suggestions for staffs that want to develop better meetings.

Inservice Training is the Schools' Most Imperative Activity

Inservice should be viewed as the most important instructional activity of the school. Student learning rests solidly on the quality of instruction provided by knowledgeable and skilled teachers. Teacher preparation begins in college, but at present, undergraduate education falls far short of developing the kinds of teachers needed in any school today, but particularly those involved in desegregation. Furthermore, the world changes after teachers graduate; so teachers must continue to be actively involved in learning. They must pay attention to their own growth in order to be able to do a better job for their students. Yet inservice frequently is badly done and has a justifiably bad name among teachers. Effective inservice programs should be planned as educational experiences with attention given to these precautions:

1. Consider inservice the most important instructional activity of the school.
2. Find as much time as you can for inservice; don't waste what is available.
3. Plan inservice so that sessions are a continuing related series. A "one-shot" speaker will not accomplish lasting change.
4. Use inservice programs to create support systems involving groups who will work together and help each other between sessions.
5. Look for free resources. Staff members can plan and conduct their own problem-solving sessions. Community persons, such as ministers or social workers, are trained to work with groups and will donate time.
6. The whole faculty does not have to have the same inservice activity. Different groups may have different problems or interests or are at different levels of problem-solving.
7. Planning is essential. Have those to be affected by the inservice do the planning. The process of planning often is more than halfway to successful outcomes.
8. Know what you want staff members to be able to do as a result of the inservice.
9. Be clear about the projected outcomes of each inservice session so that progress can be evaluated.
10. Be sure that the methods and processes used in the inservice are related to what you are trying to help participants do.
11. Inservice sessions should deal with real issues which are of importance to the school staff. Provide help in solving the problems people see as real in their school.
12. Involve all school staff, including cafeteria workers, secretaries, custodians, and aides, in the inservice program.
13. Administrators should participate in inservice sessions. They should not be absent or merely observe.
14. Set beginnings and ending times for each inservice session and start and end on time.

Schools are Homes, Not Prisons or Armies

Schools generally are conducted as institutions, with organizational structures, heirarchies of authority, and standardized practices that institutions exhibit. In an institution, people generally perform their tasks in isolation while taking

orders from a superior. When one part cannot function, it (he or she) is simply replaced. Another way to look at a school is as a community--like a small town where each citizen and each social unit has a function that contributes to the whole, but has assured privacy and support from the whole. The more the school--staff and students--can function as a community, the more the forces of community can be utilized to enhance education. Some ways that staff can create a community climate within the school are:

1. Create small support groups (or teams) within the larger staff.
2. Give autonomy to the small groups so that they perform real functions and are not just advisory and powerless. Groups should have the capability of making significant decisions about their own practices.
3. Distribute leadership functions so that everyone gets a chance to experience leadership and demonstrate expertise.
4. Create a communication network that fosters interdependence among the small groups.
5. Create decision-making situations (such as how to best use the music consultant for the school) that require groups to engage in problem-solving for mutual benefit.
6. Select and use practices that are more like family life and less like prisons and armies. For example, the more the cafeteria is like a home or family restaurant, the fewer discipline problems you will have.
7. When problems arise, let the person or group nearest the situation lead the actions to solve the problem.
8. Make sure that newcomers and strangers (both adult and child) are taught how to get things done and how to solve problems in the community.
9. Establish practices that demonstrate that every person belongs in the school and is a vital and necessary part of its life.

ADULT RESPONSIBILITY
IS S.O.P. HERE

Much of the dependence and childish behavior learned by school personnel and students is brought on by well-intentioned actions taken by principals and teachers who try to save people from their own actions. Many standard practices in schools are just unexamined habits that make people behave irresponsibly. Three standard operating procedures (S.O.P.'s) will help everyone gain confidence, effectiveness, and public stature. The S.O.P.'s are simple:

I. WHENEVER ANYONE HAS A PROBLEM WITH ANOTHER, GO DIRECTLY TO THE PERSON INVOLVED.

II. ANYONE CAN MAKE ANY RULE THAT HE OR SHE CAN ENFORCE.

III. THE PERSON OR GROUP WHO MAKES THE RULE ENFORCES IT.

PLEASE DIRECT REQUESTS
FOR MEDIA CATALOGUES
TO: MEDIA CENTER
2451 N. MERIDIAN
INDIANAPOLIS, IN 46208
(317) 264-2921

FACULTY MEETINGS TO SET UP A POSITIVE CLIMATE

Often schools get on a downhill run. They begin thinking negatively, then acting negatively and both staff and students are treated negatively. Soon the school is overpowered by negative thinking. The only answer is a strong dose of the positives. Many schools have begun new positive climates by holding faculty meetings devoted to positive thinking. Here are ways to organize and use such meetings:

The "This School Ain't-So-Bad" Meeting

Divide the faculty into small work groups (2-5 per group).

Give each group several sheets of newsprint or chart paper, a magic marker and some masking type.

State a rule that no one may criticize another's contribution.

Ask each group to write on its paper a list of the positive things about the school.

Tape the papers to the wall and have each group read its list to everyone. If the faculty is large (more than 30-35 people), don't have each group read, but have everyone walk around the wall reading the charts; then have the whole faculty discuss what they read.

Leave the papers on the wall if possible so people can see them and add to them as the year progresses.

The "You Are Valuable" Meeting

Have each individual faculty member list the strengths he or she brings to the school. Trade lists with another person and each one adds strengths that the writer possesses but failed to list.

> Variation: each person's list is shared with a group and the group adds to it. Hang the lists on the wall in the teachers' lounge and people can add to them at any time.

> Variation: using a separate paper for each recipient, every member lists strengths possessed by the others, then gives each list to the person described.

BEATING THE SYSTEM: SOME GAMES ADULTS LOSE

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From the day they are born, children learn to respond to adults in ways that will help them get what they want and sometimes those wants are different from what adults would have them do. Each child learns responses that are peculiar to his own world as he experiences it, but each exhibits a set of behaviors that are consistent and fairly predictable. They may be described as moves in a "game" (in the same sense that Eric Berne[1] uses the word) in which the prize is to do what one wishes to do as opposed to what a perceived more powerful opponent (the adult) wishes one to do. Those behaviors insure successful maneuvering within the environment, and they are utilized in relationships with all institutions such as schools. The games are communicated from child to child in several conscious and unconscious ways. Adults who are busy or naive reward the child's behavior by helping him to win the game. The games are not usually willful resistance to authority. They are learned ways to manipulate authorities and are entirely functional from the child's point of view. They will be changed only if the authority figure consistently makes his "moves" so that the child's actions are disfunctional in the sense that those particular behaviors do not get him what he wants (though some more desirable behaviors might).

The behaviors usually occur in a sequence that remains fairly stable as the child* tests his relationships with new adult acquaintances. The sequence is then adapted as the child "psych's" out each adult's peculiarities during the test period. If we eliminate the game called "Flight" which is simply leaving the scene in a way designed to isolate oneself from authorities, test (games) proceed in a sequence as described here.

1. Delay

Children learn early that most adults are too busy to follow-through on their demands. For example, mother tells a child to leave the room several times but never does anything to assure that he leaves.

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*The particular sequence of moves discussed in this paper are not peculiar to child/adult relationships but may be readily observed in employee/employer relationships, dating games, and marital relationships-indeed in any situation where one party is attempting to exercise power over another who is covertly resistant. Though the present paper is written for teachers and parents it may be equally useful in a variety of business, professional and domestic situations.

The child sits silently or re-enters the room quietly, and after a while the commands cease although the child remains in the room. In another setting a teacher walks through a noisy room calling for silence and telling everyone to get in his seat but does nothing to assure that it is carried out. The noise continues and the teacher valiantly tries to conduct a lesson. The net result is that the child through delay, stalling, or procrastination escapes attempts to influence his behavior.

The most productive adult response for helping children to unlearn this behavior is to provide clear directions, clear and reasonable time limitations and consistent follow-through.[2]

II. Obfuscation

The child learns early that adults operate with limited information about the world beyond their adult concerns and limited commitment to learn more. Adults tend to be too preoccupied to deal with child concerns; thus, they neglect checking out the child's descriptions of reality. Utilizing that knowledge, the child can thwart adult authority by introducing information that causes the adult to go off on a tangent from what he set out to do. In this stage of the game, the child will play one adult off against the other, will cloud issues with additional (often unrelated) information, or will lie to manipulate circumstances to his advantage. Some typical behaviors at this stage contain phrases such as:

"A bunch of kids were (or other forms of "Everybody is doing it")..."
"... my cousin said (or some other variation on the theme)."
"My teacher (or some other adult) told me to..."
"That white teacher (or 'that black teacher' or other plays on the adult's prejudices)..."
"Nobody ever told me..."
"I didn't know..."
"I left my..."

The productive adult response is to ignore the obfuscation but to insist upon whatever the originally prescribed behavior was--after checking out any extraordinary circumstances. Patient and consistent checking out assures the child a fair hearing but presses home the point that the adult is not going to forget his original expectations. Consistent checking out and follow-through establishes the futility of obfuscation and gradually reduces its use. Of course, if one automatically assumes that the child is obfuscating, the teacher or parent may act unfairly, thus undermining productive relationships with the child. Effective parents and teachers strive to learn a keen sense of what is obfuscation and what deserves further attention. But even though the adult follows-through to determine the legitimacy of a tangential concern, he should focus on the child's behavior (what he actually did or is expected to do) rather than on his

excuses and should not permit tangential issues to divert him unnecessarily. Of course, if a teacher is ignorant of school rules and procedures, of home conditions, or of the child's individual style of life, obfuscation can be very successful and the child is encouraged (reinforced) to use it. That is one of the major problems faced by substitute teachers, but fulltime teachers often are unaware as well. Parents also frequently lack knowledge about their child's life outside the home, or within it, or there are disagreements among household adults about what procedures are; so they are targets for frequent obfuscations.

III. Histrionics

Most adults have many guilt feelings and uncertainties about their relationships with children. They often have to express expectations that are not clear or that seem to be arbitrary; thus, they may be insecure about what it is they do expect. Most adults also want others - even children - to think positively about them and to approve of their decisions. They are ready victims of games that are designed to make them feel hurt, unloved, inadequate, or wrong. Children learn to utilize those negative reactions to gain an upper hand in dealing with adults who are subject to those feelings. Crying, sulking, and silence are the major moves at this stage of the game, and they are summoned forth at the slightest provocation and with such intensive reality that adults may move immediately to undo the "harm" that they feel they've done. The tears are real and the acting of the highest quality; thus, the guilt-ridden adult is led to reverse or to lessen his expectations as he attempts to win the child's favor.

The effective adult response, once the genuineness of the child's behavior is clearly in doubt, is to continue to hold to the original expectations, either overlooking the histrionic display entirely or making known his knowledge of the game. The adult may say, "After you are through, I still expect you to..." or "While you are crying, remember to have that done by..." Then, by withdrawing either physically (by leaving the room or situation) or psychologically (by getting busily absorbed in other things), the adult can save himself from further attempts to divert him and can permit the child to save face before commencing the task.

IV. Belligerence

Although it is usually another type of histrionics, belligerent behavior is a new stage of the game. Here the child assesses the vulnerability of his antagonist and enters into whatever degree of bellicosity seems safe yet promises to divert the adult from his purposes. Black children often take advantage of the fears of white teachers; children in general test the limits to which any teacher or parent can tolerate aggressive behavior. Children may take advantage of the adult's aversion to violence or confrontations, doubts about what course of action to take, feelings against using superior

power against defenseless children or prejudice to create a tense situation out of which the child will gain his ends.

Belligerence often has another aim also. It is an attempt to make the adult behave in ways that will prove the child's beliefs about him or in ways that will prove to other onlookers that the adult is arbitrary or uncontrolled in his responses. If the child believes that the adult has some prejudice towards him, he often tries to prove the point to himself and sometimes to observers. For example, if a daughter believes that her father does not like her, she will behave in ways that get him to yell at her or punish her in ways that she can interpret as proof of dislike. Many children of oppressed minorities cause school officials to prove the existence of prejudices in just the same way. Like other forms of histrionics, belligerence often is used in public before potentially hostile observers.

This game requires much self-control from the adult, else he proves the child's point by playing the child's game or he enters into a game that rapidly escalates* to create many more problems than were originally on the agenda. Both adult and child may forget the original expectations and cause much more complex problems.

The adult should ignore as much of the belligerent action as possible and insist upon the original expectations with <u>as little counter-belligerence as possible</u>. The adult's aim should not be to prove his authority but to obtain the desired behavior with as little loss of face to the child as can be permitted. After relating with an adult for a period of time, the child learns just how much belligerence is permissible and how it may be expressed with that adult. The adult should take care to see that the child learns reasonable limits and reasonable ways to express himself. Effective teachers and parents also show enough patience to create circumstances and to allow time enough for the child to regain his composure and to maintain his integrity as he sets about to meet the desired expectations. The adult must maintain control of himself or he will lose this game. Unless it is unavoidable, this game should not be played out in view of or in earshot of the child's peers; it could lead to

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*Escalation is a term I use to describe the process in which either party takes actions that make a situation worsen usually by expanding into larger, more complex problems that are at the same time unnecessary, extraneous and increasingly unreasonable.

"showdown."* If the teacher becomes concerned that he will lose authority with the other children, he may force the child to escalate. In such instances, teachers risk losing more respect by pushing the child than by demonstrating the grace to leave the child some self-respect.

V. Subtle Sabotage or Half-do

Once the child learns that the adult will not be deterred, or led away from his purpose or frightened away, he will set about to meet the original expectations. At this point the adult has "won" the game (in the sense that he did not lose them) unless he relaxes too early under the delusion that there are no more moves to make. There is one more. At this stage the child will go through the motions of meeting the expectations, but he will perform at minimally acceptable levels. He will do only what he must or only what he is told to do, exactly and to the letter. If the adult gives imprecise directions or relaxes his vigilance or accepts half-done work, he will receive less production than the child is capable of attaining. If the child "wins" on this move he loses in the larger sense because he does not realize his full potential for self-directed achievement.

The adult can help the child learn better self-directive behavior by clearly expressing the criteria by which performance will be judged, by establishing expectations that are assuredly within the child's capabilities, by following up to evaluate the performance, and by assuring that the child knows criteria for assessing his own accomplishment.

VI. Do

After all of the moves are done, the child will do what is expected if he understands the expectations, if they are within his capability, and if the adult has entered sensitively and firmly into the games without losing sight of his purposes. Each time the child does a task well (or meets an expectation) he learns that he can do it; he learns criteria for judging his own performance; and he becomes more self-directing and more self-disciplined. Those outcomes should be the "prizes" for which the adult is striving; he wins when the child wins them.

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*Showdown is a term describing a situation in which the teacher and the child are poised before the group in a situation analogous to that found in a Western movie when the gunfighter and the young challenger must "draw" upon one another or be disgraced before the whole town. Usually the adult must prevent this game by refusing to let his concern for losing face govern what he does with the child.

VI. Sensitivity

It is obvious from the above discussion that the adult must utilize great sensitivity throughout the sequence of games if he is to succeed in teaching the child greater self-discipline. The successful teacher or parent must be able to separate genuine from game behavior. For example, not all crying is histrionics and not all belligerence is testing. Miscalculation and misassumption will cause a number of problems. It is probably better to risk "losing" one of these games than to act on a false assumption and lose an opportunity for winning respect and trust from the child. Of course, if one is continuously losing the games, he loses respect and trust as well. Winning the games and successfully teaching self-disciplined behavior depends upon intimate knowledge of the particular child, of the nature of game behavior, of ones own feelings, and of the behavior of children and adults in general. Such knowledge is gained from intimate experiences coupled with sensitive examination of ones own feelings as well as the observed patterns of behavior on the part of others.

The major purpose of the games we have described here is to test out and establish a relationship with an adult figure. Through the games the child hopes to achieve some predictability about how he can and should relate to the adult. Consequently, the adult is teaching the child how to relate to him, and his responses to the games help to determine future behaviors. The games are an attempt to find security in a situation that is perceived to be fluid and insecure. The adult makes them less necessary if he can communicate clear expectations and criteria for success, if he demonstrates trust in the child, and if he exercises confidence and strength in his adult role. The adult invites games and tests if he is insecure in his own resolve, if he feels guilty about the child, or if he fears losing the child's respect--in short if he is not sure of himself and is not able to accept his own imperfections. Above all the adult himself will display childish behaviors if he loses sight of his intent to teach the child and enters instead into his own game merely to prove that he is boss. If a person has to prove that he is boss, then of course, he isn't. When a child confronts an adult whom he senses to be confident (and that confidence is often displayed by a respect for the child), he never doubts who will emerge boss if the matter ever comes to a test; so the adult does not have to prove the point. He needs merely to help the child learn what moves will be successful and which will not.

FOOTNOTES

1. The concept of games as a way of looking at human interaction was well-developed by Eric Berne, Games People Play (N.Y.: Grove Press, Inc., 1964) and has been further developed in many other publications, most notably Theodore Harris, I'm OK. You're OK (N.Y.: Harper and Row, 1969). A most useful orientation (24 pages) is written by Loenard Campos and Paul McCormick, Introduce Yourself to Transactional Analysis (Berkeley, Calif.; 94705: Transactional Publishers, 3155 College Ave., 1972).

2. Parents and teachers may get excellent help by learning what is described in a fine little book entitled Child Management: A Program for Parents and Teachers by Judith M. Smith and Donald E. P. Smith. Champaign, Illinois: Research Press Co., 1978.

APPENDIX A

Approaches for Improving School Discipline

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I. Punishment and Control — Techniques which utilize the authority of the school to control students.

Approach	Definition	Advantages	Disadvantages
Corporal punishment	The student is physically punished in some way (paddling, pinching, shaking, slapping, "swatting," smacking hands, etc.).	Immediate and concrete punishment is applied. Corporal punishment may be the only method some students respect. (Doubtful) Can clear the air and terminate the event.	Often used as outlet for adult frustration. May not be effective in changing behavior in desired direction. Students often do not understand the reason for punishment. Teaches that "might makes right" rather than the solving of problems. Violence is antiethical to the educational process and human dignity. Legal implications may make it impractical. Often unfairly administered to innocent parties. Often disproportionately administered to minority and poor students. Doesn't address school causes for problems.
Expulsion	Student must leave school for more than 10 days. May not be applied without • written notice to parent • written reasons, • notification of opportunity for hearing, • notification of time and place for hearing.	Gets the disruptive student out of the school. Can improve group behavior by removing the "troublemaker". (Doubtful in most cases). Removes disruptive elements before they spread. (Doubtful in most cases).	Forces out students rather than dealing with the problem. Effects are the same as suspension except more severe. Doesn't address school causes for problems.
Suspension or variations such as sending home or extended "cooling off"	Student must leave school for a designated period of time. (Ohio law stipulates up to 10 school days). May not be applied without • written notice prior to suspension, • written statement of reasons, • opportunity for informal hearing.	Gets the disruptive student out of the classroom and school. The disruptive student cannot disturb others. May get parents to come to school for a conference. (Generally poor method for doing so).	Can teach that power is absolute and arbitrary. Without due process, teaches students a sense of helplessness. Has little positive educational value. Gives students official approval to be out of school. Encourages school officials to deny responsibility. Often disproportionately applied to minority groups. Students are denied education; time is not used productively. May put student irreparably behind in school work. Does not rehabilitate the student; does not get to the source of the problem; denies treatment. Often used for trivial or non-disruptive purposes. Gives students a "record"; often leads to repeated suspensions. In many cases, no parent conference is held. Often alienates students and parents. Doesn't address school causes for problems.

Approach	Definition	Advantages	Disadvantages
Security forces and precautions	Security officers are on duty in the school. Security aides such as locks and bars on windows are utilized. A promising variation is to have a person or a family live on school premises to discourage burglary or after-hours vandalism.	Security personnel can prevent vandalism. Security personnel sometimes deter potential discipline problems. Makes teachers feel more secure. Security personnel sometimes take personal interest in students. Security can save equipment, etc., from theft.	Often exacerbates problems, requires increasing effort. Can reinforce idea that students "don't belong". Security forces and equipment are expensive. Sets up a prison-like atmosphere in which students have little chance of developing self-discipline. Indicates fear and distrust on the part of school officials. May "turn off" staff, students, parents, and community. Doesn't address school causes for problems.
Detention	Student spends extra hours in the school or classroom as punishment.	Is a non-violent form of punishment, usually applied the same day. Students can put the time to use by doing homework. Students involved in extracurricular activities have extra incentive to avoid detention.	Staff can see monitoring as noneducational imposition. Often given for trivial offenses. Hours of detention can be a status symbol among peer groups. The detention room can be a dumping ground; students often are not engaged in productive work. School is lengthened as a punishment, implying that school is punishment. Sometimes whole classes are forced to stay as a result of a few students' misbehavior. (Very poor educational practice). Too many detentions given willynilly destroys effectiveness. Doesn't address school causes for problems. Requires special process for transported students.
Sending students to principal's office	The student is told to go to the principal's office to be disciplined by the principal.	Teacher can immediately remove a disruptive student. Teacher is relieved of pressure and responsibility. Principal is informed of problems.	Principal's office is often filled with students. Principal's role is defined as disciplinarian and punisher. Children may learn that teachers can't discipline. Principal has no time for creative administration. Time is taken away from learning activities. Doesn't address school causes for problems.
Transfers	A student who is not working well in a particular classroom or school is transferred to another situation.	A transfer can resolve personality conflicts. A student can be placed in a situation where teaching methods better suit his/her learning style. Student is in a learning situation rather than being suspended or expelled. Student can exercise choice, take responsibility for own program.	Transfers may be used as punishment. Receiving schools may resent or reject new students. Records may label the student in a negative way. Student can be moved around just to get rid of problems rather than trying to solve them. Some "voluntary" transfers are really force-outs. Often used as a step prior to expulsion with little help for the student. Doesn't address school causes for problems.
Loss of privileges	Students who misbehave lose privileges such as assembly, gym, etc. Some systems have a demerit system which results in loss of privileges.	If students want to retain privileges, they are motivated to behave appropriately.	If privileges are not seen as important, the technique will not work. Students may misbehave to get out of some extra-curricular activities. Doesn't address school causes for problems. Special teachers resent loss of student time.

Approach	Definition	Advantages	Disadvantages
In-house suspension	The student is suspended but stays at school, usually restricted to a certain area such as a study hall or room.	Student is removed from immediate situation. Student can receive counseling and work towards rehabilitation. Parents are pleased that the school is dealing with the problem rather than sending the student home. Suspension and expulsion are reduced. School is not denied to the student. Time can be used productively. Can develop personal relationship between the student and some staff member.	Often such programs are highly regimented. If student is too restricted, experience can build up further dislike for school. Time may not be used productively if proper help is not available. Is expensive in terms of supervision. Students who behave well in the suspension room could often behave well back in the classroom. Students may misbehave again to escape the boredom. Doesn't address school causes for problems.
Physical exercise (Doing "laps")	Students who fight or otherwise misbehave engage in physical exercise such as running, doing push-ups, etc.	Excess energy is worked off. Students are distracted from original misbehavior. Permits students to cool-off, regain composure.	Making students tired may in some cases increase the problem. Students may learn that exercise is a punishment rather than a need of the body. Doesn't address school causes for problems. Can be excessive and cruel.
"Fresh air class"	Students who are disruptive spend time in activities as cleaning up the school grounds.	Energies are channeled into productive activities. Needed work is done. Student may gain stature for doing important work.	Students may learn that keeping grounds neat is a punishment rather than a duty as a citizen. Doesn't address school causes for problems.
II. Treatment of Individual Student Needs:	**Techniques which attempt to fulfill or counteract perceived deficiencies within individual students.**		
Drugs	The student is given tranquilizers or stimulants to modify behavior by increasing attention span or calming activity.	Can be helpful in a small percentage of cases who have been accurately and carefully diagnosed by a physician.	Represents a radical intervention in the student's life. Often misused by being given indescriminately. Are sometimes administered to students who are exhibiting normal behavior in response to rigid teacher expectations. Doesn't address school causes for problems.
Dietary modifications	A change in diet to reduce the intake of certain foods whose chemical content can produce (or is associated with) undesirable behaviors or to increase the intake of certain nutritional elements whose lack is associated with undesirable behaviors.	Works well for students whose behavior is related to dietary intake. Can prevent student from being labeled a "learning disability." Can provide "answer" for otherwise unexplainable behavior. May be substituted for ill-advised drug treatment. Little chance of harming child.	Doesn't work with all children. Can be overused by faddists. Probably should be used after a good medical examination. Doesn't address school causes for problems (unless school food has wrong nutritional balance for student).
Special education classes	Students who are having discipline problems are referred to special education professionals for diagnosis and prescription. Sometimes students are put into special classes for "emotionally handicapped or disabled."	Students get professional treatment. Teachers have resources; can get expert advice. Teacher does not have to cope with the disruptive student.	Often used discriminatorily against minority students. Isolates problem students; prevents normal school life. Assumes disruptions are caused by problem students rather than normal frustrations. Stigma attached to special classes. Used instead of suspension or expulsion to avoid due process requirements. Often labels student for entire school career. Tendency to lump together for treatment those who have special problems and those who don't. Doesn't address school causes for problems.

Approach	Definition	Advantages	Disadvantages
Positive reinforcement (Also called behavior modification, response shaping, success approximation, or contingency management).	The goal is to reward appropriate behavior and not reward those that are not desirable. The technique is built on the theory that we tend to repeat behaviors we find rewarding.	Negative actions and punishment are eliminated. Inappropriate behavior is simply ignored while appropriate behavior is rewarded by praise or other means. The approach is especially effective when the positive reinforcement is inherent in the consequences of appropriate behavior (such as involvement in work or constructive interaction with other students). Helps teachers understand learning better. Can build emphasis upon the positive throughout the school. Gives teachers an effective tool they can use without additional resources. Helps teachers describe behavior better.	Positive reinforcement is sometimes accomplished by external means only. Can fail to build on intrinsic drives and rewards. When misused, behavior modification programs can destroy initiative and self determination. Some people fear "mind control" over unwitting students. Programs can be rigid, inflexible and dull. Doesn't address school causes for problems.
Specialized help for children with special needs	The teacher refers children with suspected physical problems or severe emotional problems to outside resource persons such as psychologists, nurses, therapists, counselors.	Sometimes discipline problems are the result of neglected or unsuspected medical problems. When such problems are relieved, disruptive behavior ceases. Sometimes children's emotional problems or home situations are so severe that professional help is needed. The teacher is relieved of sole responsibility for the student's problems. Consultative help is available to the teacher.	Qualified specialized help is not always available. When resource persons are available, they may not have enough time to devote to individual students. Sometimes professional resource persons diagnose but do little to help the teacher deal with the problems. The danger of "labeling" the child as a learning or emotionally disabled student should be avoided. Doesn't address school causes for problems.
Meeting basic needs	The school provides for basic needs which may be missing in the student's life. An example is the breakfast program provided in many city schools or the provision of warm clothing. Also could include programs to provide personal support, "buddies", parent-figures, etc. Could also include activities to help student feel safe and a valued member of the group.	Some of the barriers to learning and involvement are removed. If students lack enough food or warm clothing, they find it difficult to concentrate on school work. Can make student feel secure, valued. Can promote relationship between student and school personnel. Can provide "linkage" with the complex, unresponsive organization.	Extra time is needed to find out about a student's needs and to make provision for them. Money is needed to institute programs such as free hot lunches. Sometimes help is given to children in such a way as to destroy dignity. Staff often resents such activities as "not part of learning." Doesn't address school causes for problems.

III. Interactive Strategies: Techniques which bring the student's world and the school world together.

Behavior contracts	A contract is made between the student and the principal or teacher to achieve stated objectives. The contract may be sent to parents.	Can develop personal relationships between student and staff. If worked out cooperatively, the contract puts responsibility on the student to meet his/her own agreements. Parents know what is expected. Expectations are clear. The "official" nature of the contract impresses the student with its seriousness. May be used to address school causes for problems. No extra funding is required.	Extra staff time is needed to make and follow up on the contract. If imposed by authorities, all advantages can be negated. May not address school causes for problems.
Appeal boards or ombudspersons	Appeal boards or ombudspersons constitute a third party to which students can appeal if they feel they have been unfairly treated by school officials. Student ombudspersons may be utilized.	An objective opinion is available. Students learn from the proceedings. Students do not feel helpless in the face of school authority. Some boards are composed of students and community people as well as school people.	Boards take time and effort to organize. Boards and ombudspersons may require extra money. Careful planning is required so that the system will actually work. See "Advocacy."

Approach	Definition	Advantages	Disadvantages
Community involvement in discipline problems	Schools make contact with community agencies which serve as a link with the home.	Community agencies are able to provide resources and make contracts that school people cannot. Agency can serve in a consultative capacity to the teacher. Agencies offer training courses for parents and students and provide counseling services.	Extra time is involved in seeking community involvement. Often not as effective as direct communication with the student's parents. Community agencies may operate under a philosophy which is detrimental to what the teacher is trying to do. May not address school causes for problems.
Community Schools Mott Program Flint Program or other variants of community involvements in the school. Adult education and recreation programs Volunteer or paraprofessional staffing plans	Any practice which involves parents and other citizens in the school as active participants, either as recipients of services, as staff adjuncts, or in problem solving roles. Any practice which makes the school an integral part of community life for persons normally not in school as well as students. Degree of mutual involvement varies widely.	Generally, the more integral the school in community life, the fewer discipline problems will be. Makes it easier to settle discipline problems by focusing more school, home, and community resources. Reduces community opposition to measures taken and support for disrupters. Gives students sense of ownership; greater sense of value and responsibility. Reduces barriers between school/community. Raises respect for and confidence in school personnel. Increases staff self-confidence. Nips problems in the bud. Increases communication and problem-solving. Can address school causes for problems. Reduces cultural barriers, staff fears. Reduces mutual prejudices. Can reduce vandalism. Can improve staff performance. Makes effective use of space freed by lower enrollments. Can facilitate relationships with other agencies involved in educational/recreational services. Makes efficient use of space and people at "down times." Can provide additional employment for staff members. Brings all ages together in school.	Takes time, maybe space and personnel. School personnel may resent feedback. School personnel may fear parental involvement. Sharing space may produce friction. School personnel may dominate groups. Teachers' unions, custodians, or administrators may resist some forms of involvement. Working out working relationships requires a "shakedown" period. Persons or groups currently benefitting from present school practices may oppose new groups' involvement. Can cause staff members to leave (may be an advantage in some cases). Teachers need inservice to develop human relations skills and attitudes (can be advantage to improving total school program). May be inadequately conceptualized or implemented.
Advocacy Programs (one variant is ombudsperson)	Each student selects one teacher or administrator to act as an advisor and mediator in the event that he/she has problems or specified members of staff are designated advocate or whole school is trained to protect the rights of others or whole staff acts on behalf of students in preference to other considerations.	Student is able to deal with an adult whom he/she trusts. Provides checks and balances against inappropriate actions. Relationships are built between students and teachers. Possibilities are opened up for ongoing personal counseling. Parents gain confidence that staff works for students. Addresses many school causes for problems. Assures students they are valued.	Mechanism may not allow for changes if relationships fail to achieve purposes. Program must be voluntary on both sides. Students who are in a failure pattern may find it difficult to establish relationship with any school person. Staff may shift responsibility to one or a few persons. Staff (and administratio) may resent advocates.

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Approach	Definition	Advantages	Disadvantages
Home visits	Teachers make friendly non-evaluative visits to the students' homes, preferably during the first few months of school. Both friendly and problem-solving visits are made throughout the school year.	Community gains respect for school staff. Students learn that teachers are interested and that their homes are worthwhile places for teachers to visit. Relationships are established with parents before evaluation creates tension. Students know that the teacher has direct contact with the home; therefore, "game playing" and disruptive behavior are lessened. Student self-esteem is increased. The teacher knows the student better. Teacher loses prejudices about parents and vice-versa. Teacher gains confidence.	Sometimes teachers are shy or apprehensive about making home visits. Going in pairs for the first few visits is helpful. Home visits take time. Teacher unions may oppose them. Instructional value isn't recognized. Teachers may go to "study" homes. Teachers may go only to "tattle" to parent. Other teachers resent home visitors.
Parent involvement (various forms)	Parents volunteer in schools or classrooms. Parents are involved and informed about the school situation. If behavior contracts are formed, parents are part of the arrangement. Teachers invite parents into the school for a variety of reasons rather than for discipline or evaluation only. Teachers visit students' homes.	Communication between the home and school gives the student added security and helps in making expectations clear. Added parent contact builds trust on the part of students and parents. Students cannot easily play "games" between home and school. Parents react positively to increased contact.	Sometimes difficult to get parents involved, especially if they work long hours and have economic difficulties. Teachers must be careful not to be judgmental, constantly evaluating or talking about disruptive behavior. Time is needed to build positive teacher/parent relationships.
Teacher/ student conference	The teacher and student talk together about the violations of rules or discipline problems.	Communication is established on a one-to-one basis; involves student in solving own problems. Both get a chance to talk and to listen to each other; helps get at causes. Student is not given a lecture before peers; can save face; gives student sense of being valued.	Is sometimes not sufficient as a deterrent to misbehavior. An in-depth discussion, especially with a student who has severe problems, takes time and skill. Can turn into a "lecture."
Class meetings and discussion/ Rap sessions	Class meets as a group to solve problems, to discuss causes of behavior, to specify what behavior is desirable, to improve classroom routines.	Negative reactions are turned into positive interaction. A positive classroom environment is established. Opportunities for choices and decisions are created. Social learning is enhanced. Students have a chance to be heard, feel they belong and are valued. Students have responsibility, learn self-discipline. Students learn ways of interacting positively and working together to solve problems. Can address school causes for problems.	May not yield immediate effects from one rap session. Must be utilized over a period of time. Class time may be limited. Teachers may not see such sessions as "teaching." Staff may resent having students "talk up." Teacher may dominate discussion. Parents may not see the educational value.
Strength bombardment	People in the school begin to focus on the positive attributes each person brings to the school.	Overcomes low moral and negative climate. Fosters creativity in teachers. Raises self-esteem in teachers and students. Fosters pride in the school. Can life community spirit.	Personnel and students can "go through the motions" but still feel negative. Many school practices depend upon negative evaluations; practices need to change. Uninvolved parents may see it as permissiveness or cover-up of problems. Educators may lack skills.

Approach	Definition	Advantages	Disadvantages
IV. Support Systems:	**Techniques which link human resources to help individuals.**		
Proximity	The teacher lets the student work near him/her.	Nearness provides the security and sense of control some students need. The student can receive attention at times when he/she is behaving appropriately.	Is effective only if the student is gradually moved towards independence and self discipline. A teacher cannot always keep one student nearby. Doesn't address school causes for problems.
Peer counseling	Students work in groups, receive special training in problem-solving skills, understanding self and their environment, and leadership. Students become co-leaders for other groups of students. They talk and help each other work out problems.	Students, particularly adolescents, are more trusting and likely to discuss problems with peers. Students learn problem-solving skills and working with others. Supportive groups are developed to reinforce positive behavior. Students develop leadership skills. Builds on the fact that peers are the greatest influence on adolescents. May address school-caused problems.	Peer group counseling requires skilled adult guidance. Is most useful at the secondary level.
Adult teams to help students	Teachers, administrators, aides, volunteers (parents and others)—form teams to take students aside when disruptive, talk to them, counsel them, etc.	Student is prevented from becoming more and more disruptive. Energy is channeled into problem solving. Can develop personal relationship between student and staff. Can address school causes for problems. Can help student become self-disciplined.	Adults often need inservice training or some kind of special help to work effectively together. Extra adult help may not be available. Takes time. If one-sided, advantages can be negated. May not address school causes for problems.
Adult teams to relieve teachers	Teachers, administrators, aides, volunteers, etc. form teams to help a teacher solve problems.	Support is provided for teachers. Personality clashes are relieved. Teachers gain perspective. Trains teachers to deal with own problems. Builds confidence as teacher gains ability. Can address school causes for problems. Can give teacher a cooling-off time.	May reinforce teachers' biases. Teachers are often unwilling to talk about their problems to other teachers. Time for group discussion and planning between teachers may not be readily available. Team may not treat teacher as a peer learner. May alienate teachers, cause them to ignore or hide problems.
V. Training Strategies:	**Techniques which seek to improve discipline problems through increasing the knowledge and skills of the people involved.**		
Case Study	Teacher or other person notices a student who is a source of discipline problems and observes the student, taking careful note of the situations that elicit inappropriate and appropriate behavior, and gathering the relevant information to determine causes of behavior problems and possible solutions. (Child could do a self study)	Teacher works toward discovering causes of behavior problems rather than simply reducing symptoms. The teacher takes active interest in the student; such interest can deter inappropriate behavior. Develops deeper insight into behavior. Can address school causes for problems. Postpones precipitate action.	May encourage amateur psychology or sociology. May not address immediate problems. Time consuming. May treat child as a thing to be studied. May focus too narrowly on child and miss external causes. May reinforce bias that student is deficient. May focus on trivia or irrelevant factors.

Approach	Definition	Advantages	Disadvantages
Courses for students in human relations and psychology	Students are provided courses which help them to understand themselves and others better.	Can teach self-discipline. Students begin to understand the causes for their own behavior and can conscious work to make changes. Students can begin to understand the behavior of others, including teachers, and can learn to deal with it in positive ways. Courses can provide a vehicle for discussion of student behavior. Courses provide an interesting educational alternative. May address school causes for problems.	Often difficult to find money and resources for offering new courses. A teacher who adds the course to his/her load will have to find time and money for training and preparation. Can be treated too academically; doesn't get acted upon. Instructors may not comprehend, or model the behavior that is taught. May be offered only for "better" students.
Role-playing	Students take the role of another person in conflict situation. They could also play the teacher's role. The technique can be used by teachers to analyze students' problems in inservice sessions.	Increases individual or group sensitivity to underlying causes for behavior problems. Increases ability to see from another person's perception. Can address school causes for problems.	Students and teachers are often self conscious in role playing situations. People need to become accustomed to role playing and to discussing it. Can be disturbing to participants; should be carefully used if issues are sensitive. Can be seen as "plays and games."
Behavior chaining	Persons who have been involved in or have observed a situation of conflict make a flow chart or diagram which represents every action, statement, or feeling in sequence. Discussion and analysis accompanies diagraming.	Individuals are allowed to describe actions and their own feelings and perceptions. People involved develop awareness that there are usually several different points of view in any one incident. An incident is described in concrete form so that causes may more easily be inferred. Individuals develop the skill of objective description before leaping to inferences or judgements.	Chaining and describing behavior are skills which take time to develop. Process is time consuming and would not be practical for every discipline incident. Educators often lack skill for accurate description; get frustrated.
Staff development. Inservice training for teachers, administrators, aides, custodians, or any other member of the staff.	Includes teaching skills necessary for creating a school environment which teaches self-discipline. Any attempt, formal or informal, to teach staff members new skills, attitudes, knowledge or functions.	Teaching self-discipline requires knowledge and skill which is seldom adequately developed during undergraduate work and isn't often reinforced in schools. During inservice training sessions, teachers can learn to work together in problem-solving groups. New teachers can profit from the experience of other teachers in the school. The inservice session can provide a time when teachers share their problems and use each other as resources. Skills developed during inservice sessions, such as communication skills or awareness of cultural diversity, can "spill over" into work in other areas of the curriculum. Addresses school causes for problems.	Takes time and money. Sometimes difficult for school officials to recognize the value of such expenditures. Often very poorly done. Parents must be educated to realize the value of released time for teachers to engage in professional development. If teachers are not involved in planning for inservice, they may not respond positively. If all staff are not included, teachers may find their new ideas frustrated by misunderstandings with aides, principals, or custodians. May reinforce every school cause for problems.

Approach	Definition	Advantages	Disadvantages
Social Literacy Training	Helping a group of teachers become aware of shared problems, identify how school rules or organization cause those problems, and work together to improve the system by changing roles, goals, rules, practices, policies and norms.	Improves morale Increases confidence in self. Improves relationships among staff and with students. Reduces bickering among staff and blaming other people. Addresses school causes for problems. Reduces unfair, unproductive practices. Teaches staff and students to be responsible, to be self-disciplined. Makes people feel valued. Builds a sense of community; improves learning atmosphere. Can have "spin-off" effects such as higher achievement of students and better instructional decisions on part of teachers. Prepares better citizens, both teachers and students.	Takes time. Seems too simple to some staff members. Takes away scapegoats. Will not work if the staff believes the students and their parents to be the only source of problems. Resistance or lack of participation by a few staff members can sabotage the process. Staff members with highly diverse philosophies will find the process difficult (but such a situation makes it even more necessary).
VI. Rule Systems:	**Techniques which attempt to improve discipline problems by improving the effectiveness of written rules and guidelines.**		
Discipline codes	The school system develops a clearly stated discipline code. Some codes are jointly developed by students, teachers, administrators, and parents. Student rights may be included as well as school rules and procedures.	Development can be used to build a sense of community and agreed upon norms for everyone. Codes which are cooperatively developed are more likely to be understood and supported. Expectations are clearly stated so that they can be understood. Consequences and procedures are outlined so that each student may be assured of equal or fair treatment. A well-developed, fair code can build up trust on the part of students. If a bill of rights is included, the code becomes a social contract and not merely a legal form. (see Bill of Rights) Can address school causes for problems.	The code can be so inflexible that it does not provide for individual personalities or extenuating circumstances. If discipline codes are implemented by administrators alone, they may not be supported. Discipline codes must be updated often so that the people following them feel that they have been involved in the creation or interpretation of them. Clearly stating expectations and rights is a difficult process. Codes can lead to an emphasis on the form rather than the substance (letter rather than spirit) of the procedures. Often focuses only on student's transgressions. Often treats only procedural "rights" not substantive rights. May not address faculty culpability.
Computerized records on student conduct	Teachers have computer cards listing violations of rules. At each infraction, the teacher sends a card to the computer center. The computer selects the appropriate letter and sends it to the parent.	The computer provides a record of disciplinary action. Parents are informed promptly of rule violations.	May be too expensive for the few advantages. Can be impersonal and sterile. Circumstances of the violation cannot be adequately recorded by computer. Provides only the teacher's view. A phone call to parents for any serious offense is more prompt than going through the computer. Lessens possibilities for communication and cooperative planning between teachers and parents. Doesn't address school causes for problems.
Eliminate unnecessary or inane rules	The teacher decides what is and what is not a problem. Rules which are not necessary for facilitation of learning and which may actually cause distraction (such as asking permission every time a student needs to sharpen a pencil) are eliminated.	Students are freed from trivial, oppressive constraints. Can free the teacher from some aspects of disciplinary role. When fewer rules exist, students can follow those necessary rules that do exist more carefully. A less rigid atmosphere causes less frustration and hostility. There is no "fun" in breaking a rule that does not exist. Frees staff for pressing educational duties. Can address school causes for problems.	Individual teachers must decide what rules they consider necessary. When making school rules or eliminating school rules, it may take some time for teachers to reach concensus on what rules are necesary. Staff and some parents may see trivial rules as safeguards against anarchy.

Approach	Definition	Advantages	Disadvantages
Bill of Rights	Students and school staff work together to develop a Bill of Rights, a set of inviolable freedoms, for all people who work and learn in the school.	Teaches self-discipline. Students learn from the process of developing the Bill of Rights. The Bill of Rights helps students become involved in the governance process of the school and in preventing discipline problems. Students work to keep each other from infringing on rights. Reasons for rules are made more understandable. Both teachers and students get rights protected. Gives students a sense of being valued and responsible. Addresses many school causes for problems.	An effective Bill of Rights takes time to develop. A variety of people with differing perceptions and opinions must find agreement. Teachers or principals may not like granting rights to students. Teachers may not understand how to apply rights in schools. Students have to be taught how a bill of rights is applied to their actions. Deciding about rights violations takes time, requires due process.
VII. Alternative Educational Settings:	**Strategies which seek to improve discipline problems and help individuals by providing for student and parent choice.**		
Quiet places	Corners, small rooms, or retreats are constructed where students can go to be by themselves without distraction or to "cool off."	Tension is relieved. Student has a chance to calm down before talking about a problem. Escalation of conflict is prevented. No punishment need be involved. Can promote self disciplined behavior.	Teacher may overuse. The "quiet place" may become an "isolation booth" for punishment. If more than one student is sent to the quiet place, it may become a detention area. An entire class cannot be sent to a quiet place. (Seldom need to do so). Teachers may not accept non-punitive nature of the alternative.
Alternative programs within the school (Voluntary transfers between classrooms)	Any opportunity whereby a student or parent may select an alternative to the assigned class. May be permanent. May be temporary way to withdraw from or avoid an immediately frustrating situation. May be teacher or student initiated for sound educational purposes. Should be non-punitive.	Recognizes different learning/teaching styles. Individual needs and interests can be considered. Discipline problems are prevented from becoming severe. Students are stimulated and motivated. Students are not simply "dumped" to get rid of problems. Permits non-punitive way for teachers and students to avoid normal personality conflicts. Can address school causes for problems.	Alternatives are in danger of becoming isolated. Stigma may be attached to students who participate. Can become equivalent to in-school detention. Can become a "dumping ground". Teachers may resent giving students an "escape." Staff may take transfer personally. Violates belief that all classes should be alike.
Alternative Schools (temporary)	The student is removed to an alternative school setting which offers individualized teaching and counseling. The goal is to rehabilitate the student and enable him/her to go back to the regular school situation.	Students can receive needed individual help and counseling. Causes of problems can be more easily determined when individual help is available. Disruptive students are removed from the school and put into situations where they can be productive.	Genuine learning opportunity must be *offered*; Danger of becoming "dumping grounds" for problem students. Alternative schools are expensive.

Approach	Definition	Advantages	Disadvantages
Alternative Schools (permanent) (Voluntary transfers to other schools)	Students who do not respond well either academically or behaviorally to assigned school settings may elect to attend an alternative school which may offer a variety of learning options. Difficult to generalize because variety and quality differ so much.	Usually provide more individualized instruction. Programs offer more choice and meet student needs and interests. Teaching methods are selected to fit student learning styles. A new setting offers a "fresh start." Students learn to choose, take responsibility (unless they are sent to school as punishment). Programs can be tailored to interests, learning styles, etc. Staff can be freed to address school causes for problems.	Can be expensive. Require much communication with parents so that programs which differ from "regular" school are understood. Genuine learning opportunities, not just fun, must be offered. Can be punitive and segregatory. Receiving schools may be inhospitable.
Work-study Alternatives	Programs combine school work with on-the-job training. Students spend a portion of the day in classes and work at the job the other part of the day.	Students' self esteem and feeling of responsibility is increased. Boredom and frustration are lessened. Peer norms work to create pride. Motivation is increased as school work seems more relevant. Students have an opportunity to explore careers. Students and coordinators may relate productively.	Staff may view program as a dumping ground. Tracking minority students or poor students into work-study programs may deny them academic excellence of which they are capable. Participation sometimes means a student has less chance of being admitted to college. Teachers sometimes resent students in academic classrooms.
Alternative experiences for students (within or among classrooms or schools or community)	A variety of experiences are provided within or outside the classroom. The curriculum is adjusted and methods are organized to provide for choice, exploration, problem solving, and active learning. Examples are special projects, library research, work-study experiences, working with media, art experiences, peer tutoring, etc.	Reduces chance of pushing student into corner. Challenge and a channel for energy are provided. Students become involved, less interested in causing problems, less easily distracted, and less tense or hostile. Self-esteem is increased. Making choices is taught and learned. Meets more interests. Reduces school causes for problems. Puts responsibility on student; teaches self-discipline.	Extra work is required on the part of the teacher. Organization and planning is needed. May reduce teacher contact with student. May let important instruction "slip between cracks".

ROLES OF TRAINING TRIOS FOR DEVELOPING SKILLS
IN DESCRIBING BEHAVIOR CHAINS*

Purposes for making behavior chains:

To analyze in detail an incident of behavior
To clarify one's own memory of an incident of behavior
To increase one's ability to recognize significant information in a situation requiring disciplinary action
To become aware of the complex variables at work in a situation requiring disciplinary action
To increase one's ability to become aware of his own perceptions and behavior
To develop skill in recognizing points at which a problem is created, escalated, or avoided in situations requiring disciplinary action.
To develop skills in helping others analyze incidents of behavior

Roles

1. Describer--describes an incident of behavior in as much detail as possible.

2. Clarifier-listens, draws the chain, and helps the describer clarify his own memory of what happened.
   Gets him to describe the behavior of all participants
   Gets him to describe his own feelings as well as his perceptions of the feelings of others
   Eliminates judgments and inferences by seeking descriptions of actual behavior
   Fills in the gaps in the chain
   Has him describe his own behavior as well as the behavior of others
   The listener should:
   ...ask questions such as "and then what happened?" or "where were you when this happened?"
   ...make no intuitive leaps
   ...make no judgments
   ...make no inferences
   ...repeat the describer's comments
   ...ask for examples and illustrations
   ...ask for an "acting out" of the event

3. Observer--observes the process and gives feedback to the describer and the listener after the chain is completed about how well they clarified the description and helped one another.

After you have described the incident and completed the behavior chain--either for yourself or for another--ask the following questions:
How many problems are there?
Which one will be worked on? (Ignore others for the time being.)
Whose problem is it? (If a child is cheating at chess, the problem is his partner's, not the teacher's.)
How will I know when the problem is over? (Describe the behavior.)
What is the most effective way to bring about that change with the resources I have at my disposal (including those I can muster)?
Is it a long-term problem? (Will it take time to establish the relationship and to teach the behavior?) Or is it a short-term problem?

HOW CAN WE RECOGNIZE A GOOD DESEGREGATED SCHOOL?

Good schools don't just happen. They are designed and planned. They are adapted to fit available space and other resources. They are named and described in terms that fit local politics, values, and attitudes. But they are built and moved forward by people who have a plan in mind that keeps them on the right general track even when immediate and expedient things slow them down or prevent some action.

Whoever leads the movement must have a sense of what a good school is, what it looks like in everyday practice—and then must have the skill to get other people to share in that sense and to do what needs doing. Unfortunately, too few people have experienced truly good schools and college courses give only a fragmented idea of what a good school looks like. With little bits and pieces of information, people have trouble developing a vision of good schooling in totality. Consequently, all attempts to create good schools are accompanied by intensive staff development in both formal and informal ways. This is particularly true of recently desegregated schools.

Good desegregated schools have somebody who thinks deeply about how all people (both children and adults) learn. Actions taken in the school go beyond fads or short-lived innovations and truly concern themselves with how various actions affect learning in individuals of all races. Furthermore, learning is seen in a full sense: not only learning the subject matter of reading or history, but learning the prerequisite behaviors, attitudes, and modes of thinking that enable one to <u>want</u> to read or to <u>want</u> to use history as a part of thought.

Now, all of this discussion, which the reader may complain is abstract and maybe even <u>philosophical</u>, is necessary because good schools are not a collection of flashy activities, and gimmicks. They are a concerted—even an orchestrated—set of actions that build something cohesive and enduring. Without a conception of what that something is, there is no plan, no sense of direction, no knowledge of <u>why</u> we are doing the things we are doing.

In a good desegregated school it is absolutely necessary that personnel have a sense of what they are all about and how each contributes to the overall plan. It is not necessary, though, that any <u>one</u> person think it all up himself or herself. A staff can meet frequently and develop a plan that becomes better and bigger than any one of the members could have thought out alone. The plan (or the philosophy)

- *gives a sense of direction to what we do;
- *builds a cohesiveness among those who share the plan;
- *provides ways to convince others that we know what we are doing;
- *gives us confidence when facing opposition, crises or disappointment;
- *helps select from various alternatives as we work daily;
- *helps to evaluate what we have done;
- *helps us see progress; and
- *makes us masters of our own fate.

How can we recognize a good school which meets the needs of all its children and adults? Philosophy is worthless if it is not translated into specific terms, into visible actions that people can see and understand. That is what

makes the abstractions live and takes them out of the category of slogans or jargon.

Ten criteria for identifying quality of schools are identified below. For each criteria we have listed some "clues" which will help readers determine whether (or when) they exist in their school. This list is not exhaustive, nor are the clues or indicators the only signs that quality education is taking place. This is not a list of "shoulds", but if these characteristics exist in the school, something good probably is happening there.

Shared sense of purpose. A sense of direction and mutual purpose is shared among a significant number of staff, students, and (to some extent) parents representing all portions of the community. Goals are frequently referred to in meetings and conversations, and proposed actions are accepted or rejected in terms of consistancy with the goals. Both staff and students can speak about growth that has taken place, giving tangible examples of changes that have occurred in both adults and students. People in the school exhibit a sense of accomplishing something that they feel is important, giving a positive tone to the climate of the school.

Purposeful and organized activity. The school appears to be a place where people know what they are doing. Staff and students are busy; people in hallways and common areas know where they are going and why. Students are able to walk in orderly groups without need for rigid, straight lines or adult supervision. A set of rules, which everyone in the school knows and understands, and which all groups view as fair, represents a description of "how we do things in this school", rather than a prescriptive and restrictive set of "don'ts".

Involvement and personal investment. A large number of the majority and minority personnel (staff and students) are involved in the school's activities--in planning and in implementing. Some staff members voluntarily go beyond assigned tasks. You may see them at school after hours and on non-school days; on the playground even when not assigned duty; or in students' homes visiting or helping out when death or emergency occurs. People care about one another, about the tasks to be done and about the school. Nearly all members--students as well as staff--feel that the school belongs to them; and each feels he or she can make a difference in it.

Personal responsibility. Faculty members and students of all races exhibit behavior that reflects feelings of personal responsibility for what occurs in the school. The office is not constantly filled with students sent for punishment. Students go on with activities when the teacher leaves the room, and teachers go on with faculty meetings when the principal has to leave. If a person isn't feeling well, others pitch in to perform duties. People don't wait for "George to do it"; they do what needs to be done.

Resolving problems. A problem-solving attitude permeates the school culture. When a problem exists, time is spent getting things going, not finding someone to blame. Problems do not fester; faculty meetings are devoted to identifying and solving problems. The question "What can we do?" replaces the sentiment, "It can't be done".

Positive school climate. The people and the climate of the school are open and receptive, exhibiting constant and pervasive emphasis on positive features. Cultural differences are viewed positively. People seem happy; they smile; they touch one another. Students tell teachers about their personal lives and teachers share some of their own interests and accomplishments. Parents and others feel welcome when they walk into a building. A walk through the school--and looking at the student work displayed--will tell a stranger something about the students' interests, their cultures, and the communities from which they come.

Focus on individuals. Administrators, teachers, and students in the school are accustomed to speaking, planning, and acting in terms of individuals. Classrooms reflect individual teachers' styles and adaptions to their students. Diagnosis of individual learner's strengths and needs rather than a prescribed curriculum directs instruction just as it directs staff evaluation and inservice programs. Materials and activities which reflect different levels of maturity and ability and which often go beyond the established curriculum are found in classrooms and in common areas in the school. Materials are carefully reviewed for freedom from stereotyped race and sex images. There is general agreement that materials and books should be not only race and sex fair, but race and sex affirmative.

Priority on student welfare. When decisions are made and procedures established, the educational growth of individual students takes priority over concerns about adult convenience, pleasing superiors, saving face or maintaining tradition. If parents can't get to school, teachers visit students' homes. Time is taken to teach an individual child necessary background information; no one says there isn't time or that helping one means neglecting everyone else. Teachers' "free time" is used for planning, problem-solving, or working with individual children. Clubs and other extra-curricular activities are created and staffed because they enhance learning and are seen as part of the instructional program.

Broader concepts of teaching. The curriculum is defined broadly to include something more than simple recall of facts and development of skills. Tests and classroom questions require the use of knowledge, and teachers continually seek ways to teach a full range of attitudes, knowledge and capabilities. Student work reflecting cultural pluralism is displayed all over the school, and a variety of work--paintings, reports, puppets, graphs, storied, etc.--can be seen. Students have opportunities to participate in plays and to perform in many ways for school and community audiences. Discipline is viewed as part of the curriculum of the school, not as a waste of teachers' time; conversations about discipline center on how to teach the behaviors needed rather than on punishment. Staff members share books, articles, ideas and materials--giving the school an air of intellectual excitement. The "whole child" is not a slogan but is visible and conscientiously addressed. The staff presence is felt and seen throughout the school and in the broader community.

Reputation for quality. The school is reputed by others to be "doing something". People seek to be involved in the school. University students are placed there; researchers select the school for projects; out of town visitors are directed there for examples; teachers from other schools ask to visit. People in organizations, establishments and social agencies representing all segments of the community know and talk about the school in positive terms, and teachers are often invited to give presentations concerning the school's practices. Like the dollar, a school's value depends on how valuable it is felt to be, and the staff works to build its reputation among people whose opinion they prize, including parents and students.

--W.W. Wayson, Professor, College of Education, Ohio State University
--G.S. Pinnell, Assistant Director, Teacher Certification, Ohio Department of Education

Steps

A Publication of the Illinois/Indiana Race Desegregation Assistance Center Indiana University
January 1980
Indianapolis, IN

by William W. Wayson

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL DIAGNOSTIC QUESTIONS

Topic: The Multi-ethnic Curriculum

Questions:

- Do primers and readers contain minority characters? Yes☐ No☐
- Do primers and readers portray situations in which minority characters have equal status roles with the majority? Yes☐ No☐
- Do social studies texts contain information about black leaders and black people? Yes☐ No☐
- Do American History textbooks cover black Americans? Yes☐ No☐
- Does the music curriculum—or chorus and band—cover the music of black people? Yes☐ No☐
- Does the library contain books and materials dealing with black history and culture and the contributions of black Americans? Yes☐ No☐
- Does the school have a plan to systematically replace old texts such as readers and social studies texts with integrated textbooks? Yes☐ No☐
- Have all teachers attended black history or culture courses? Yes☐ No☐
- Does the school have a multi-ethnic Committee or a Human Relations Committee concerned with the issues of integrated education? Yes☐ No☐

Topic: Extracurricular Activities

Questions:

- Does the school program provide for extracurricular activities? Yes☐ No☐
- Can students attend extracurricular activities without regard to grades earned? Yes☐ No☐
- Are bussed students able to attend as readily as non-bussed students? Yes☐ No☐
- Are extracurricular activities free of cost or free to those who cannot afford to pay? Yes☐ No☐

Topic: Achievement and Grouping

Questions:

- Does every class in the school come close to reflecting the ratio of black to white students in the total school? Yes☐ No☐
- Where students are assigned to remedial or special education programs which remove them from the mainstream of students, does the referral system provide for the consensus of several professionals? Yes☐ No☐
- Does every student spend a large part of the school day in a challenging course of study? Yes☐ No☐
- Does every student have the opportunity for positive interracial contact with equal status? Yes☐ No☐

Topic: Multi-Ethnic Teaching

Questions:

- Do administrators and teachers discuss race openly in faculty meetings? Yes☐ No☐
- Have there been any assemblies which dealt with race? Yes☐ No☐
- Do teachers discuss race with students in the classroom? Yes☐ No☐
- Do teachers make assignments such that black and white students work together? Yes☐ No☐
- Do teachers praise all students for their accomplishments rather than praising only those who accomplish the most? Yes☐ No☐
- Are teachers equally friendly with their black students and their white students? Yes☐ No☐
- Do teachers try to avoid warning or blaming students and scolding them for misbehavior? Yes☐ No☐
- Do students spend the major part of the school day involved in learning? Yes☐ No☐

Topic: Home and School

Questions:

- Do teachers know the parents of their students? Yes☐ No☐
- Have all parents visited the school? Yes☐ No☐
- Do as many black parents attend school functions as white parents? Yes☐ No☐
- Have teachers attempted to find out what barriers keep parents from involvement in school activities? Yes☐ No☐
- Is there a parent organization in the school? Yes☐ No☐
- Does the parent organization have a membership representative of all major racial or ethnic groups in the school? Yes☐ No☐
- Do black and white parents have equal status in the parent organization? Yes☐ No☐
- Do teachers visit the homes of parents who cannot get to the school? Yes☐ No☐
- Does the school have an even-handed policy for handling parent requests such as changing students' classroom assignments because of the race of the teacher? Yes☐ No☐
- Where community opposition to integration exists, have black and white parents been involved in helping to develop a school policy on racial issues? Yes☐ No☐

Are the rules perceived to be fair by black and white teachers and students? Yes☐ No☐

Is the general reaction to student misbehavior rational rather than emotional? Yes☐ No☐

Have teachers and administrators discussed rules and discipline together? Yes☐ No☐

Is there general agreement among the faculty as to disciplinary procedure? Yes☐ No☐

Topic: The Staff

Questions:

Is the faculty integrated? Yes☐ No☐

Do black and white personnel at the school have equal status? Yes☐ No☐

Has the principal articulated the goals of the school? Yes☐ No☐

Does the staff know the goals of the school? Yes☐ No☐

Do those goals include good academic achievement? Yes☐ No☐

Do the goals include good race relations? Yes☐ No☐

Is there time set aside for the administration and faculty to discuss race relations and racial issues? Yes☐ No☐

Do administration and faculty discuss race openly? Yes☐ No☐

Does the school have a faculty Human Relations Committee or Multi-Ethnic Committee concerned with the issues of integrated education? Yes☐ No☐

Topic: Internal Integration

Questions:

Is there black student and white student representation in all curriculum tracks, including college preparatory? Yes☐ No☐

Are all required classes integrated? Yes☐ No☐

Are most elective classes integrated? Yes☐ No☐

Where students are assigned to remedial or special education programs which remove them from the mainstream of students, does the

Topics: The Students

Questions:

Is there a student group with responsibility for human relations, including interethnic relations? Yes☐ No☐

Are the members of that group selected by the students? Yes☐ No☐

Do minorities have equal representatin in the human relations group? Yes☐ No☐

Do the functions of the human relations group include:

- general communication involving minority and majority students? Yes☐ No☐
- grievance procedures? Yes☐ No☐
- crisis prevention activities? Yes☐ No☐
- general problem solving? Yes☐ No☐
- planning and sponsoring social events? Yes☐ No☐
- orientation of new students? Yes☐ No☐

Have the roles, responsibilities, and decision-making powers of the human relations group been agreed upon by the administration and the students? Yes☐ No☐

referral system provide for the census of several professionals? Yes☐ No☐

Does every student spend a large part of the school day in a challenging course of study? Yes☐ No☐

Does every student have the opportunity for positive interracial contact with equal status? Yes☐ No☐

Do the pictures in school publications generally reflect the racial composition of the school? Yes☐ No☐

Are both black and white students represented in the following:

- prom queens and their courts? Yes☐ No☐
- officers in student government? Yes☐ No☐
- sport teams? Yes☐ No☐
- clubs? Yes☐ No☐
- committees? Yes☐ No☐
- honors? Yes☐ No☐

A HANDBOOK FOR INTEGRATED SCHOOLING

Garlie A. Forehand
Marjorie Ragosta

Educational Testing Service
Princeton, N.J.

July 1976

HIGH SCHOOL DIAGNOSTIC QUESTIONS

Topic: The Multi-Ethnic Curriculum

Questions:

Does the required English curriculum include study of black authors?	Yes☐	No☐
Are there literature courses available that emphasize the contributions of minority-group authors?	Yes☐	No☐
Do courses in American history present accomplishments and contributions of black Americans?	Yes☐	No☐
Do social studies courses deal with African, Asian, American Indian, and Latin American cultures, as well as European?	Yes☐	No☐
Are there elective social studies courses available that emphasize the contributions of nonwhite people and cultures?	Yes☐	No☐
Do fine arts courses reflect contributions of nonwhite artists and cultures?	Yes☐	No☐
Does the music curriculum—or chorus and band—cover the music of black people?	Yes☐	No☐
Does the library contain books and materials dealing with black history and culture and the contributions of black Americans?	Yes☐	No☐
Does the school have a systematic plan to replace old texts with integrated textbooks?	Yes☐	No☐
Have all teachers attended black history or culture courses?	Yes☐	No☐
Is material dealing with minority and majority groups presented in a manner that is integrated from both a logical and social point of view?	Yes☐	No☐
Are minority group members portrayed in a manner that is free of stereotypes?	Yes☐	No☐

Topic: Extracurricular Activities

Questions:

Can students attend extracurricular activities without regard to grades earned?	Yes☐	No☐
Are bussed students able to attend as readily as non-bussed students?	Yes☐	No☐
Are extracurricular activities free of cost or free to those who cannot afford to pay?	Yes☐	No☐

Topic: Multi-Ethnic Teaching

Questions:

Have there been any assemblies which dealt with race?	Yes☐	No☐
Do teachers discuss race with students in the classroom?	Yes#	No☐
Do teachers make assignments so that black and white students work together?	Yes☐	No☐
Do teachers praise all students for their accomplishments rather than praise only those who accomplish the most?	Yes☐	No☐
Are teachers equally friendly with their black students and their white students?	Yes☐	No☐
Do teachers try to avoid warning or blaming students and scolding them for misbehavior?	Yes☐	No☐
Do students spend the major part of the school day involved in learning?	Yes☐	No☐

Topic: Home and School

Questions:

Have all parents visited the school?	Yes☐	No☐
Do as many black parents attend school functions as white parents?	Yes☐	No☐
Has the school attempted to find out what barriers keep parents from involvement in school activities?	Yes☐	No☐
Is there a parent organization in the school?	Yes☐	No☐
Does the parent organization have a membership representative of all major racial or ethnic groups in the school?	Yes☐	No☐
Do black and white parents have equal status in the parent organization?	Yes☐	No☐
Where community opposition to integration exists, have black and white parents been involved in helping to develop a school policy on racial issues?	Yes☐	No☐

Topic: Rules and Discipline

Questions:

Is there an official school policy on rules and discipline?	Yes☐	No☐
Are all faculty, staff, and students aware of the school rules and the consequences for breaking them?	Yes☐	No☐
Have black students and white students participated in the formulation of school rules and codes of conduct?	Yes☐	No☐

Topic: Rules and Discipline

Questions:

Are white students equally likely to be punished for breaking the rule as black students?	Yes☐	No☐
Are the rules perceived to be fair by black and white teachers and students?	Yes☐	No☐
Is the general reaction to student misbehavior rational rather than emotional?	Yes☐	No☐
Are students who disobey rules helped to understand the reasons for the rule and guided toward improved behavior?	Yes☐	No☐
Have teachers and administrators discussed rules and discipline together?	Yes☐	No☐
Is there general agreement among the faculty as to disciplinary procedure?	Yes☐	No☐

Topic: Staffing

Questions:

Is the faculty integrated?	Yes☐	No☐
Does it generally reflect the racial composition of the students in the school?	Yes☐	No☐
Do black and white personnel at the school have equal status?	Yes☐	No☐

Topic: Principal's Leadership

Questions:

Has the principal articulated the goals of the school?	Yes☐	No☐
Do teachers know the goals of the school?	Yes☐	No☐
Do those goals include good academic achievement?	Yes☐	No☐
Do the goals include good race relations?	Yes☐	No☐
Is there a strong planning and evaluation component built into faculty meetings?	Yes☐	No☐
Is there time set aside for the principal and teachers to discuss problems together?	Yes☐	No☐
Are discussions of problems action-oriented, i.e. is the major emphasis on finding alternative solutions?	Yes☐	No☐

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Organizing Urban Schools for Responsible Education

By William W. Wayson

This school is failing every child in it. That is your responsibility. The usual excuses – bad kids, poor parents, lousy administrator, bad curriculum – will not be acceptable. You are the only people in the world who can solve the problem. You have all the knowledge and skills to find ways to meet the problem, but it will require that we learn them together. If the principal is bad, get rid of him; if the curriculum is bad, throw it out the window and develop something that you think will work. The job of the administrator is to create conditions in which you can help kids learn and to protect you from pressures to do the same old things.[1]

With this address to the faculty, the principal set the stage upon which a school staff demonstrated what responsible educators could accomplish in a large inner-city school.

The shortcomings of the American school system are inherent in the network of interactions and the styles of thinking that are fostered throughout the system. Professionals have been chained in Plato's cave so long that they themselves have merged with the shadows. The Dr. Martin Luther King School was established in Syracuse, N.Y., in 1967 and demonstrated during the next three years that it could perform more effectively when bureaucratic restraints were removed, when personnel concerned themselves more with ends than with means, and when responsibility and authority were centered in the school building.

The key concepts for developing the school were: *involvement, problem solving, accountability,* and *continual growth.* It is doubtful whether any significant or lasting advancement can be made in public schools without attending to these fundamental dynamic qualities of organizations.

Involvement

Involvement in an educational enterprise depends upon having school staffs share a sense of common purpose which lifts them above daily crises and interpersonal squabblings. They also must feel that their contribution is important to the enterprise – a feeling that inadvertently but continually is beaten down in large cities. Teachers and principals are treated as machine parts who are incapable of making effective decisions about the educational process; consequently, through the exercise of hundreds of subtle cues (mostly unintended), staff members are reminded that the enterprise and its efforts are out of their ken and touch. They begin to behave as expected and psychologically withdraw their efforts to produce, though for survival they will defend the school if they feel personally attacked.

Lack of purpose and being denied involvement in "really important" decisions combine to prevent full participation in the school. "My room is my responsibility – all else can go hang" is the teacher's definition of his role. Everyone else – the principal, secretaries, custodians, parents, and children respond the same way. The school becomes a conglomeration of strangers drawn into one place at best to stay out of one anothers' inferred purposes.

The staff at Dr. King School worked together to find ways to make the school more effective by reducing the causes of ineffectiveness. Belongingness was reinforced by pointing out the teachers' (and the custodians' and the secretaries') key roles in teaching the children, by reinforcing the cruciality of their decisions, and by having them choose methods and materials, group children, schedule and organize time and space, and answer questions about what was happening in the school. Participation was forced (though at varying degrees) by the organization of the school and by removing all possible organizational crutches.

Problem Solving

People get excited about solving problems in their world. In Dr. King School the staff agreed that they should not try to hide problems, but should try to solve them. Anytime a person says that the solution of a problem absolutely depends upon forces beyond his control, he is copping out. Most school problems may be defined so that there is a way over, under, around, or through any obstacle. Most of the staff in the school accepted the challenge and responsibility of surmounting obstacles.

It was pleasing to find that about 80% of the staff were eager to get on with the new functions. Unhappily, many staff members lacked the elementary skills for problem solving. Almost all in-service programs were therefore designed to teach skills for working effectively in groups to solve problems and make decisions.

The school was organized in a way that enhanced problem solving.[2] The staff worked in decision teams of six to eight teachers, an aide, perhaps one specialist (who was considered a re-

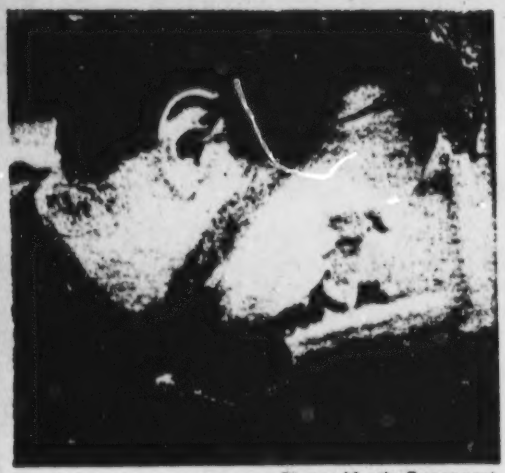

Photo: Martin Rappeport

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source and not a superior), and any volunteers they could co-opt. Each team was assigned a group of children of about 25 times the number of regular classroom teachers in the team and a number of rooms equal to the number of teachers. The team was charged with making all decisions about grouping children, choosing materials for instruction, and deciding upon the use of time, space, and personnel. Each team could operate differently from other teams consistent with the philosophy and general policies of the building.

School policies were made by the school cabinet, a legislative body made up of a representative elected from each team, the administrators, and three parents elected by the parent-teacher organization. This group could make any policy that it could enforce and it had full power to veto decisions of the principal.[3]

Problem solving proceeded at a hectic pace, with some teams acting more effectively than others, but with all freed from waiting for the others to move. The entire school took on a different character. Parents and other community leaders gave it respect and love. Other educators gave it respect but not love.

Fixing Responsibility

Most organizations fear the consequences of bad decisions and prohibit all members from making any decisions. As a result, vital decisions do not get made. Basic decisions should be made close to the problem, and the *natural consequences* of the decision must be readily apparent to the person who made it. Schools support a dependent and non-responsible role for all personnel. At present, a teacher who wishes not to perform responsibly can get succor and solace from colleagues and superiors. Excuses are protected. But one does not have to be deterred from developing more effective schools because a few do not accept independence and responsibility. Effective practices tend to be contagious and they carry great satisfaction. A school building may move forward rapidly with fewer than a third of the staff committed to change if the administrator rewards action and if someone in the building can mobilize feedback that will not permit problems to be buried.

Fixed responsibility obviously depends upon having goals to which one is committed and which are understood widely enough so that failure to achieve them will be apparent to everyone. The staff of Dr. King School recognized that they had no clear goals and that much of the frustration and failure in the school arose from the children's not knowing what was expected of them and from teachers' not knowing what success was.

The ordeal of sitting for hours and days and years in a classroom where we do not know what is expected leaves us totally dependent upon others for evidence of progress and success. This dependence leaves us no way of judging ourselves or our abilities. Since achievement is founded upon confidence in one's own ability to change the world (self-esteem, self-actualization, or a sense of control over one's environment), the staff of the school felt it imperative to build that confidence as a prerequisite to achievement in the school. They wrote a proposal and received funds under Title III, ESEA, to educate themselves to produce a curriculum designed to give children a sense of control over the environment.[4] As part of the effort to build the students' confidence, the staff devoted three full weeks during a six-week institute to learning how to write clearly stated behavioral goals. The difficulty of writing such goals and the educators' unpreparedness for thinking about goals slowed progress, so three years passed before the staff prepared even the most rudimentary statement of academic goals for the classes.[5] Nevertheless, progress was evident and it was clear that the statement of goals in itself was a highly effective teaching device. If we ever succeed in communicating our goals clearly, we will run out of things to do about 10:00 each morning as we eliminate the uncertainty surrounding present procedures.

The school gained in other ways from learning to state goals clearly. Staff members could question one another and communicate suggestions much more effectively once vagueness and subjectively evaluative overtones gave way to behavioral and objective observations. Even when teachers sat with the principal for end-of-the-year "evaluations," the teacher often asked, "Won't you be more behavioral about that?" Clarifying goals and stating them to others also strengthened requests to the central office or other sources because others gained confidence from the staff's "knowing what it was doing."

Responsibility also results from having people who will ask for an occasional accounting, especially if their interests are not served. The school typically assigns evaluation and supervision to levels that have no vested interest in the actions that they are assigned to assess. For example, a central office supervisor has no vested interest and feels no sense of personal loss if children in a classroom are mistreated or if they do not learn to read, and a principal feels no gut-level hostility if a teacher has abused a child. Responsibility cannot be a driving force in any setting unless two conditions prevail: First, the important decisions are made as close to the client as possible; second, the client (or his representative) can go *directly* to the decision maker to learn about the decision and to register praise, complaints, or suggestions. In a school the person closest to the client is the teacher, and the client is the child; his representative usually is a parent, but it could be any figure who accepts responsibility for his welfare. An accountable system must open up every decision maker at every level to direct feedback from the persons affected by the decision. The resultant feedback is the most productive and least expensive of all supervisory and in-service techniques that we can devise.

At Dr. King School the process

employed was to open the system and to teach skills for upward communications from all possible levels. The only barriers to communication arose from the reluctance, dependence, and insecurity which developed in pupils, parents, teachers, and administrators through previous experience and training. Children were taught how to deal with authority figures to obtain better instruction. They learned to speak with their teachers and the principal without either subservience or hostility. They learned a variety of techniques, from conversing about their concerns to writing petitions and picketing. They learned to state their purposes and analyze their own responsibilities. They operated in the school under a bill of rights,[6] and although the procedures were never codified, they learned legitimate grievance procedures similar to those in the Martin Luther King School in Sausalito, California.[7] On one occasion, students used the grievance procedure to call the superintendent to ask his opinion about the enforcement of the goals program. Teachers and the school earned much respect from these procedures as they developed confidence from being able to accept responsibility for their actions.

Other "feedback loops" were built into the organization. Among them was a policy that any parent or visitor should go directly to the person whose procedures they wanted to discuss. There was none of the usual "get permission from the principal," which treats both teachers and parents as irresponsible children. Visitors had to "obey" one authority – the teacher responsible for the classroom. They came in large numbers, and they generally left highly impressed with the openness of the teachers in the school. Parents or other volunteers often worked for hours in the classroom. Even the most fearful teachers on the staff soon found it difficult to accept the opposition to "outsiders" that they saw in other schools.

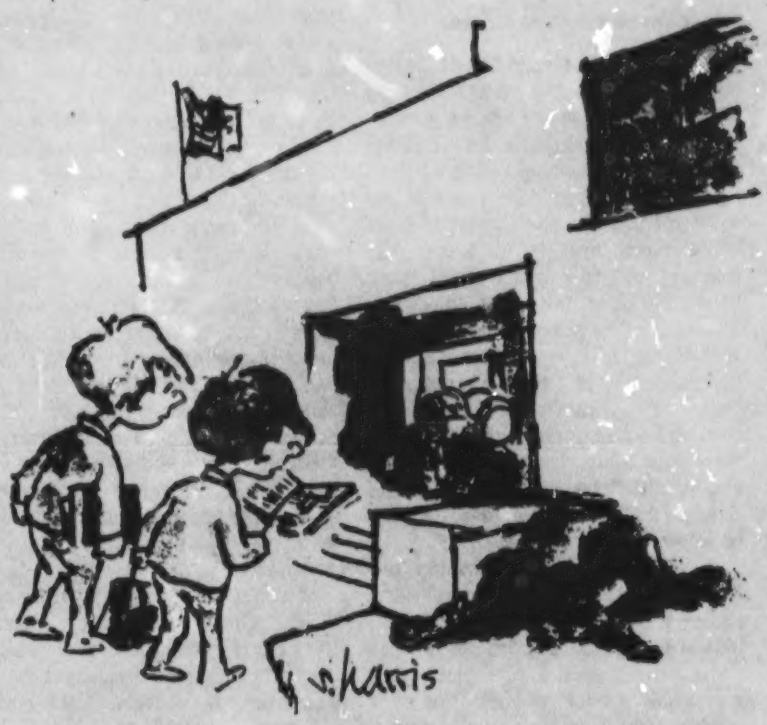
Continual Growth

An organization that survives and functions effectively must be continually learning. It learns by adapting to its environment; it must be open to its environment. Problem solving, utilizing the processes of the school as a curriculum for life, and fixing responsibility in themselves help teachers to develop their skills and to advance their sense of worth in the performance of a useful life work. The processes built into the school's operation constitute a "life curriculum for in-service," and these processes were the most effective in-service that could be provided.

However, high levels of teacher turnover are a part of life in most areas today. In Dr. King School, it seemed to be so much a part of life that the administrator gave very low priority to trying to stem turnover. Though turnover was about 25%, many of these left because their husbands left the area or to learn new skills and to see new situations. Consequently, the solution was to provide a true staff development program for new staff members so that they could move easily into the new roles and functions required in the school.

Every school is a teacher training institution and must give explicit attention to making the training relate to educational purposes. Most of the training should be consciously built into ongoing operations in the school; some of it should be provided in more formalized experiences designed by and for the staff as a part of its problem solving, but great care must be exercised to prevent those experiences from becoming the useless waste of time and human resources that typify many, if not most, in-service programs. The problems of educating are so great that we must see the development of teachers as *more important* than having children in school, for until the school can be made educational, children and teachers alike are deprived of the chance to learn what schools are supposed to help them learn. One can easily guarantee that children will learn more if we send them home at noon every day and use the remainder of the teachers' day (say, until four or five o'clock) for personal and group in-service development, home visits, individual appointments with children and parents, resource gathering, materials development, and – something without which teachers try to operate now – reading.

Such experiences must be developed in the school building. With few



"'Adventures in Literature' is on at 9:30; at 10:00 we have 'French for Everyone,' followed by a rerun of 'Concepts of Chemistry'..."

exceptions, in-service programs designed by larger units (such as the teachers' association or the curriculum department) can have small influence on what goes on in a school or classroom. The Dr. King staff never really had sufficient time for staff development, but some time was gained by closing the school 20 minutes early each day, by closing an hour early every Thursday, by closing school for a half day every month, and by using all faculty meetings as in-service time. When the school board found out about these invasions upon the child's day (a year later), it permitted other schools to get time off because the school staff had demonstrated that production came from using school time differently. The King teachers' departure from usual practice *rested solely upon responsible use of time* and demonstrated willingness to give out-of-school time to the effort. The staff had discovered that attacking and resolving important problems lessened petty concerns about working hours and the soul-destroying mediocrity of worrying about what everyone else is doing.

Functions of Effective Teachers

It will be said that "none of the practices described in this paper have anything to do with teaching; they involve the teacher in a lot of things outside the classroom." That is correct. These things have little to do with teaching and the classroom *as we know them.* But we do know that teaching and classrooms as we know them have little to do with education. These new functions in reality have everything to do with what we want from teaching and the classroom, because they mean that the teacher will be a fully functioning adult, working more with adults than with children. A childish teacher cannot help a child acquire the traits required to become an effective adult.

Adult teachers cannot develop, survive, or grow in the school as it exists today. Experience in Dr. King School indicates that it is possible to step confidently toward a new system that may produce adult teachers. The most potent opposition to such a system is within the present one; the procedures and attitudes presently employed simply do not support the new functions. Unless leadership emerges within the system,[8] pressure will be required to bring about improved practices.[9] Teachers educated for the new functions could provide much of this pressure.

Notes on Educational Reformation

Learning is not always neat and orderly and it cannot be made so. It is motivated best by a sense of constructive tension in the learner, and that tension derives from some feeling of discontent about the existing state of things. Learning involves the risk of meeting new ideas, new practices, unknown forces, unanticipated and unanticipatable consequences – all of which promise failure, uncertainty, ambiguity, and insecurity as well as success. Learning in social settings involves unavoidable conflicts (can you imagine learning to recognize and analyze one's prejudice without any emotional upsets?). Indeed the conflict through which one goes may be considered the best and possibly the only effective teacher. Helping people learn new functions and processes necessarily requires conflicts, tensions, and uncertainties. He who hopes to move forward without them not only must fail, but will waste his talents trying to eliminate the most essential parts of the process of growing and learning, much as if a cook spent his life trying to eliminate the flavors from a steak dinner.

No organization can ever get 100% cooperation and support from all the people who contribute to it. One cannot expect that all pupils, teachers, parents, administrators, and others will move together or with equal fervor. If one wants to create a learning organization, he must work with fallible people. One can never get everyone "with it," but one does not need more than a fraction of the total to make measurable progress; focusing on those who won't move means that no one ever starts.

Educational reforms are never "over." One cannot work to produce the perfect system and then spend his life exporting it – packaged with a guarantee of success. Each school building, each teacher, and each child has a peculiar personality, and all changes must be screened through that maze of individual differences. If education is life and life is the best educator, the school must be alive; it must be an institution in which the only thing that is institutionalized is the individual's responsible pursuit of new experiences, new challenges, new responses. The processes of that pursuit are all that a formal educational enterprise can transfer to its students. They promote the only learning that has the guarantee that the learner will learn for learning's sake.

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[1]An address to the staff published in William Wayson, "The Curriculum in the Inner-City School," *Integrated Education*, January-February, 1968.

[2]The organization, complete with roles and functions for the principal, teams, teachers, aides, and the cabinet, is presented in *Organizing Schools for Responsible Urban Education*, a handbook for teachers at Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr., Elementary School, prepared by teachers under the direction of Lynn Sullivan, under a grant from Title III, ESEA, to promote self-esteem among students, 1969-1970.

[3]Arthur Blumberg, William Wayson, and Will Weber, "The Elementary School Cabinet: Report of an Experience in Participative Decision Making," *Educational Administration Quarterly*, Fall 1969, pp. 39-52.

[4]The staff of Dr. King Elementary School, Syracuse, N.Y., "A Proposal to Prepare a Curriculum to Promote a Sense of Control Over Environment Among Disadvantaged Children," submitted to Title III, ESEA, 1968. The institute resulted in "Teaching a Sense of Control Over Environment in Inner-City Schools: A Handbook of Learning Experiences," Dr. King School, Syracuse, 1968, mimeographed.

[5]Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr., Elementary School, "Minimal Goals for Instruction: Stated in Behavioral Terms with Policies Governing Their Application," 1970, mimeographed.

[6]"Student Role and Functions," in *Organizing Schools for Responsible Urban Education, op. cit.*

[7]Mimeographed handout from Sidney Walton, principal, Martin Luther King School, Sausalito, California.

[8]William Wayson, "The Emerging New Breed of Educational Leadership," commissioned by Croft Publications, 1970.

[9]See articles in *Saturday Review*, September 19, 1970. □

Motto

I play it cool,
And dig all jive.
That's the reason I stay alive.
My motto, as I live and learn,
Is: To dig and be dug
In return.

– Langston Hughes, quoted in
The Reform of Urban Schools,
by Mario D. Fantini

Educating the Disenfranchised:

A Look at *The Inner-City Child*

WILLIAM W. WAYSON
GAY SU PINNELL

Reprinted from The National Elementary Principal, 56 (May/June, 1977).

In everybody's [cognitive] style there are certain strengths. And everybody has an Achilles heel. In developing a significant change in learning one must control the Achilles heel and utilize the strengths. This is the central problem of the strategy of style, especially in its application to the inner-city pupils in our school.

SO Frank Riessman states the thesis of *The Inner-City Child* (New York: Harper & Row, 1976) and focuses on the fundamental issue confronting those who truly wish to extend the benefits of education to those children for whom the

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"A pencil accidentally (or even purposely) jabbed into a student's finger will be reported as a 'stabbing' in the inner city."

euphemism "inner-city child" was coined. The thesis, which seems self-evident, is supported by most educational philosophy and psychology, but it is expressed no more in the daily operations of schools today than it was in 1962, when Riessman wrote another book with the now archaic title *The Culturally Deprived Child*.

Although the intervening years have been marked by apparently cataclysmic events—the War on Poverty, Title I and bilingual education, "benign neglect," *Swann* and *Keyes, Serrano* and *Rodriguez*, community schools, *Racial Isolation in the Public Schools*, and Coleman and Silberman and Jencks—the educational processes administered to poor children have not been fundamentally altered. Consequently, many of those children go every day to schools whose methods tear at the Achilles tendon and rub salt in the wound while earnestly professing to heal the child's deficiencies. In a hospital, similar efforts would be labeled malpractice or incompetence, but in teacher training institutions and schools, practices that are ineffective or that have ill effects on poor children are often rewarded as virtuous. The educational system's inability to adapt to the needs of disenfranchised children makes Riessman's new primer particularly important reading for every teacher, administrator, and professor in the system.

Riessman's *The Culturally Deprived Child* fell into disrepute as the polemics of the War on Poverty revealed the essential shortsightedness of the thesis of cultural deprivation. The book could not overcome its unfortunate title, especially when much of its content reflected the biases of researchers and policy makers whose major hypotheses and theoretical premises assumed that deprivation began within the child and his or her family and cultural life. In *The Inner-City Child*, Riessman set out to revise the earlier book and ended up with a substantially new one.

The new book benefits greatly from the enlightenment that has been forced on researchers and educators by the black and feminist movements. Riessman has retained his basic thesis that poor children have strengths that can and should be built on in schools, a thesis that is substantiated by recent research that, despite its weaknesses, reveals far more diversity and strength than was acknowledged in 1962. He has significantly reduced the negative tone that pervaded the earlier book (which communicated the "deprivation" theme despite protestations to the contrary). He has significantly edited out the blatant sexist grammar (the child was always "he" and teachers were always "she"; faults were attributed to "feministic" school values that strive to obliterate "masculine" traits and values). He has eliminated, modified, or qualified the worst stereotypes and untruths gleaned from the so-called research of the early sixties (the matriarchal family structure and the "deprived" child's lack of verbal ability were prominent in the earlier work).

The Inner-City Child is a book that all educators can profitably use as a starting point for professional explorations that will lead to keener knowledge of children and more effective efforts to educate them. Reviewing the book raised its own damnably Gordian dilemmas, however. What seemed like a simple task grew more difficult as we became painfully aware of the basic pitfalls of describing any group of children in terms that can be translated into educational programs to benefit those children. Compound that problem with the social class biases, the racial prejudices, and the socioeconomic stereotypes called up by the phrase "inner city," and the need to qualify, to identify, to specify what one is talking about becomes gargantuan enough to obscure whatever message is to be delivered.

"Inner city," on its face a geographic term, is another in the long series of inaccurate euphemisms that American society and schools have used to label the economically, politically, and racially based problems associated with the many children who are poorly served by the American school system or by the society that perpetuates itself through the schooling process. Whenever the term is used, most American educators (and others) envision black children from inadequate families who live in dilapidated housing in deteriorating neighborhoods, children who are difficult (if not impossible) to teach or to discipline. Too often the term and the image are attached to *any* black child, no matter where the child lives and no matter what the conditions of the home or the nature of the child's educability. To a certain extent, Riessman reinforces this stereotyped image by using the term to title his book and also by dwelling on the characteristics of black children

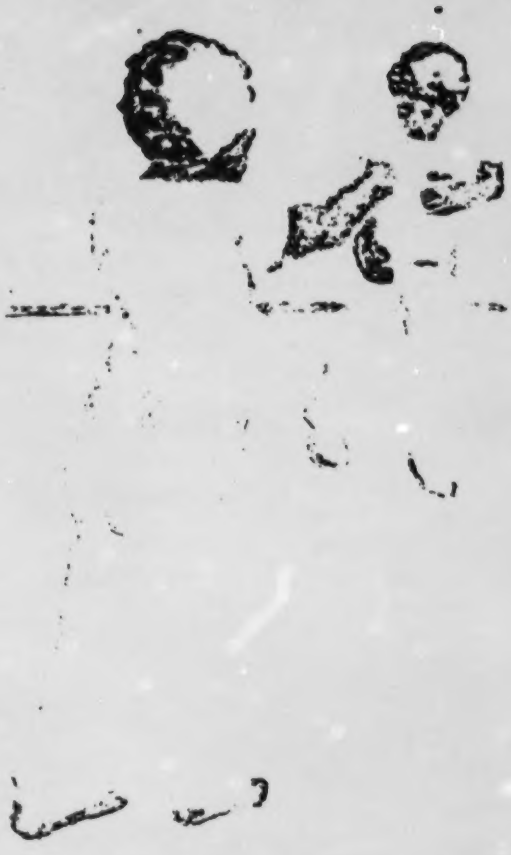
and black culture.

The problem, of course, is that any description of the "inner-city child" describes no real child. Not all inner-city children do poorly on standardized tests, and not all are uncomfortable in situations oriented to the white middle class. Not all inner-city children speak a nonstandard dialect or have reading difficulties. Just as not all middle-class children fit into the suburban culture, not all inner-city children fit into the larger inner-city culture.

Educators frequently stereotype sociological descriptions far beyond their actual occurrence, especially when dealing with people whose culture differs from their own. School faculty members will often report that poor children are "transient, nonverbal, from broken homes, hungry, abused and ignored at home, or uninterested," even though fewer than 20 percent of them (and often far fewer) can be legitimately described by any one of those characteristics. Such stereotypes are invidious, particularly when professionals have little contact with or knowledge of the daily lives of their clients.

When stereotypes govern perception, behaviors are created by observers, who then report their creations as if they were valid observations. A normal childish tantrum or youthful fight that would not evoke widespread report in another school will become evidence of violence in an inner-city school. A pencil accidentally (or even purposely) jabbed into a student's finger will be reported as a "stabbing" in the inner city. Property damage that would be cleaned up with little ado and short memory in a suburban or private school is allowed to accumulate and become "vandalism" in the inner city. Inner-city students who don't succeed on a first try are treated as though they can't succeed; all too often they don't try again, proving the assumption.

Stereotypes are not challenged in our educational system; they are nourished. The American public school and its supportive and adjunct agencies hold values that prevent the school from educating inner-city children and others who suffer in the backwash of the American economic and political system. Though it often appears that many educators hold little regard for such children and are purposely working against them (and that is true of more educators than the profession is willing to admit), it is more commonly true that the educators' own child-



"Inner-city students who don't succeed on a first try are treated as though they can't succeed; all too often they don't try again, proving the assumption."

hood, professional preparation, and career experiences give them a view of themselves, the world, and their profession that prevents them from comprehending both the essential strengths of minority children and the reforms necessary for educating them.

Many professionals simply cannot conceive of either, because they have been deprived of the ability to include such things in their perception. Just as civilized people have trained away the ability to smell different odors in the air, professionals have lost the ability to perceive the richness of children and the potential of the profession. Any program that does not attack that perceptual gap at its roots must inevitably fail, whether the reform strives to benefit inner-city children or others who depend on the school to provide foundational skills for effective participation in American society.

This perceptual gap has no "beginning" and no single "cause"; it permeates all of the processes that make up our educational system. One deficiency in our schools, however, impinges equally on affluent children and on poorer children, whatever their race or minority origin: the American school system, viewed as a whole, is unable to comprehend, program for, capitalize on, or promote the potential of individuals.

Teachers and administrators, no less than children, are deprived of their individuality within the system, yet they come to value that deprivation. When they reach that point (which usually precedes certification), educators become living curricula for teaching children to eschew individuality. If the system put its rhetoric about individual differences into practice throughout the ecology of the school, there would be no need for books like *The Inner-City Child*, and there would be greater call for skills in perceiving and building on the strengths of children.

Riessman could have been more explicit in listing the strengths poor children bring to school. The strengths he identifies are scattered through the text and are sometimes stated too generally or even too weakly to persuade the skeptical reader. Many characteristics of the inner-city culture that have been labeled as deviant are actually strengths, positive efforts to cope with the realities of poverty and discrimination. But the book gives little specific help to a teacher struggling in the face of built-up prejudices to see what those characteristics are.

Despite such shortcomings, the text leaves no doubt that the children Riessman is writing about do have academically useful strengths, drawn from a well-defined cultural heritage that has withstood persistent efforts to obliterate it. Some characteristics Riessman lists to describe the cognitive style exhibited by many inner-city youngsters:

1. Strong development of nonaural senses such as the visual, tactile, and kinesthetic.

2. Well-developed nonverbal forms of communication such as gestures; less word bound.

3. Greater expression in informal, unstructured, spontaneous situations.

4. Positive response to learning in cooperative settings such as children-teaching-children and youth-tutoring-youth designs.

5. Emphasis on learning from experience and action; a strong responsiveness to work-study programs, field-based learning, and action learning.

Inner-city children have considerable facility with informal or public language, and this is expressed best in unstructured, spontaneous situations; they verbalize more freely around actions and things they can see; they understand more language than they speak; their nonverbal forms of expression are highly developed; and they often have imaginative and perceptive associations with words.

Other positive characteristics are less explicitly listed. They include the following:

☐ The informal language spoken by many black Americans is more creative and less word bound and rigid than school language. It expresses feelings and imagery better than written language or the middle-class idiom that reflects written forms.

☐ Black culture communicates coping mechanisms that are well adapted for survival in an oppressive environment, enabling generations of American blacks to maintain some sense of dignity and individuality despite tremendous odds. Many of these mechanisms take the form of "games" played *soto voce* against members and institutions of the dominant

culture. They provide the "savvy" black person with more flexible and variable ways of operating than are exhibited by members of the dominant culture.

☐ For most black Americans, the family has remained a strong institution, providing education and direction that dominant cultural agencies such as the school have denied black children. The family reinforces a sense of identity and worth; provides personal support despite humiliations and deprivations; and, as in white families, affords an institution within which knowledge (and sometimes property) can be accumulated through several generations.

☐ For many blacks, the church has provided cultural cohesion and personal development and training, enabling them to acquire organizational and leadership skills.

☐ In significant ways, many black children become independent at very early ages, and some assume responsibility for siblings and for major household responsibilities before they are ten years old. (This is not, of course, a universal picture. Some black children are overprotected from new experiences, and others may be ignored altogether. Independence among children from black families varies as much as it does among children from families in the dominant culture.)

☐ Staying "cool" is learned from an early age and imposes a high level of self-discipline on many youngsters from the inner city. As Riessman explains, keeping one's cool "requires the ability to rapidly assess a stressful situation, to understand one's needs, and to organize one's emotions and behavior so as to achieve one's objective and at the same time maintain a sense of personal integrity." Children who learn to stay cool bring many characteristics to school that stand them in good stead there and promote their advancement in later occupations.

Perhaps Riessman's most persuasive argument for these strengths is that most black youngsters grow up to be self-supporting, self-respecting adults, despite the many handicaps imposed on them. Indeed, anyone who has observed life in inner-city schools for any length of time readily sees that, except in those schools where the organizational climate promotes disruption, all but a few of the students are every bit as enthusiastic and well behaved as those in other schools.

It is interesting to compare Riessman's observations with those of other teachers. For example, Ida Bragdon has outlined the strengths of Mexican-American migrant children.[1] She wrote that they are eager to please adults, responsible, loved by their families, curious, enthusiastic, sensitive to other people, adaptable, and able to express themselves vividly and with ease among family and peers. She also reported that Mexican-Americans value and want education for their children and that migrant children possess a culture of their own, with the values, beliefs, and behavior essential for survival. Although her pupils weren't city children, their strengths are similar to those stated in *The Inner-City Child*.

The following list of positive characteristics was developed by teachers at the Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr., School in Syracuse, New York, in 1968. Teachers there felt that many inner-city students have high regard for parents; possess a strong religious tradition; express themselves openly to others; have a flexible rather than a rigid attitude toward time; persevere despite injustice; are independent within their own environment; and display insight and perceptiveness. In addition, the children are often resilient and flexible. They support and are supported by their friends and family; are willing to share; have a strong sense of community and a growing sense of racial pride; are able to make the most of the present; are spontaneous and open to change; are people oriented as opposed to thing oriented; have parents who are concerned for them as human beings rather than as possessions; show more tolerance of people of other cultures and classes than is given in return; and evaluate people on the basis of intrinsic qualities. Recognizing such strengths enabled those teachers to develop a uniquely effective school program.[2]

"For most black Americans, the family has remained a strong institution, providing education and direction that dominant cultural agencies such as the school have denied black children."

No field of research or theory has been more influenced by the controversies about how to educate inner-city children than that of instruction in the language arts and reading. Written language skills have maintained tight control over curriculum and instruction in American public schools and in the politics of colleges of education, denying effective instruction to children of all backgrounds. The chal-

lenge of educating poor children raises questions about whether we know how to teach *any* children. Specialists in reading and the language arts have to respond to that challenge or risk losing their preeminence. The arguments about teaching language and reading influence a good part of Riessman's new material, and they should be enlightening to educators who are seeking ways to capitalize on each learner's strengths.

For poor children, the fact that their language is different poses more of a barrier to success in school than any other characteristic except race. Most poor children, regardless of race or geographic area, speak differently from the children of educated, middle-class families. The moment a child says a word such as "ain't," educators make a whole load of assumptions about the child's language, family background, education, and culture, and those assumptions affect the educators' expectations for that child, particularly in the academic areas. In fact, a few "grammatical errors" can mark a student as having a learning problem.

Riessman has benefited from recent linguistic research findings that the variety of language spoken by many inner-city children is not a deficient or incomplete form of English, but a complex, rule governed linguistic system. Inner-city children may speak differently from middle-class children, but they have a highly developed, rich language that serves as a vehicle for expression and an aid in establishing group identification and solidarity. They are skillful users of language.

Myths about so-called standard English and the supposed inferiority and superiority of other varieties of language have done much harm in working with poor children in school. No one variety of language is inherently better or more useful in communicating than any other. Each kind of language is useful when spoken between people who understand it.

There are two ways to look at the language of inner-city children: it can be seen as a *deficiency* or a *difference*. The deficiency viewpoint gives rise to programs that focus on changing children's language; in essence, obliterating their own language, culture, and values and substituting supposedly better ones. On the other hand, viewing inner-city language as different places priority on respect for the child's own language, culture, and values. Programs based on that point of view seek

the strengths of children's language and culture and build on those strengths to widen, rather than replace, their language skills.

The major assumptions on which compensatory education programs are based reflect a deficiency point of view. Riessman traces one source of such assumptions to interpretations of the work of sociologist Basil Bernstein, whose research on what he called the "restricted code" of working-class people in Britain has been widely accepted and applied to poor blacks and other minorities in the United States.

It is interesting to note that Bernstein himself is an active critic of compensatory education and of educational programs that focus on deficiencies. Bernstein points out that compensatory education "distracts attention from the deficiencies in the school itself and focuses upon deficiencies within the community, family, and child." Labeling children as "culturally deprived," he says, has injurious consequences for learning at school.[3]

Compensatory education programs and the values and goals connected with them bear reexamination. All children, inner-city black or white, suburban or middle class, need new experiences and an expanded knowledge of language. In fact, it is more than possible that the lives of all people would be enriched if they spoke and understood several dialects.

Youngsters can and do learn quickly that people talk differently in different situations. Even young children can imitate "TV talk" or Fonzie's talk or the teacher's talk. As they encounter a wide range of experiences, they become more and more competent and versatile in their use of language. Children cannot be asked to change their language the moment they enter school, forgetting the dialect they know and must still use in the home and community. They need to be encouraged to talk, and they need to be introduced gradually to the world of written language, expanding their knowledge of it while retaining and valuing the language spoken in their homes and communities.

It is no longer necessary that everyone speak in exactly the same way, but tolerance does not mean ignoring the world youngsters are preparing to face. Job interviews still demand that the applicant be able to speak and write "standard" English. Inner-city children have the right to expect that their schools will give them opportunities to learn these needed skills.

The question is how, and the answer lies in a theme repeated over and over in *The Inner-City Child*: use the strengths of the child's present language as a basis for motivating the use of language skills and for introducing any new forms that seem useful. The first step is to recognize strengths and to search for them if they are not readily evident.

One remedial reading teacher in an urban school met with failure when she tried using nursery rhymes and Mother Goose stories to help her first graders develop the concept of rhyming words. She got little response from the children. Not only were they unfamiliar with the rhymes, but they seemed uninterested, yawning or mumbling, when she repeated the words. The teacher decided that either the children knew no preschool rhymes or she had not discovered what they did know. Realizing that she had not yet found the link to the children's culture, she tried out some American folk rhymes. This time the children were more attentive, and on one of the rhymes, "Engine, Engine Number Nine," they joined in and even came up with another version.

The teacher then began to ask children from her own class and others about the rhymes they knew. She discovered that they knew many folk rhymes, such as the two that follow:

Put yo' han's on yo' hips
An' let yo' backbone slip
Oh, shake it to the east
Oh, shake it to the west
Shake it past the one
That you *love on* best
Move it in, move it out
Shake it all about.

I woke up in da mornin'
I look upon da wall
I seen a bunch of roaches
Playing basketball.
The score was six to zero
The big ones in da lead.
Momma, grab yo' spray gun
An' shoot 'em one two three.
You better stop them roaches
From playin' on my wall.
Momma, feed'em chicken an' rice
Sunday they'll be shootin' dice.

Most of the rhymes were unknown to the white middle-class teacher. The children told her that they normally never

"Myths about so-called standard English and the supposed inferiority and superiority of other varieties of language have done much harm in working with poor children in school."

"Children cannot reject the langauge of their culture without rejecting everyone and everything they love. Consequently, an attack on a person's language is an attack on the person."

used them around school. One child said, "It's not a 'real' song, just one we say at home." The teacher's report shows what she learned:

They did not use it beyond the restricted geography of their neighborhood and were puzzled that I would value it. Their tentativeness was related to their attitude that this "song" was not school-oriented, so they feared it would not meet the teacher's approval. . . .

From formal interviews I've gathered that these songs are learned very early from older siblings or peers; that they are used on home base as a form of group entertainment. Also, the individual who knows the most songs or the longest song gains the greatest admiration; it provides a channel to achieve peer status and practice fluency.

The teacher then put to use the rich background revealed in the children's play rhymes. She used them for phonics instruction, for reading, for music, and for enjoyment. In her report, she describes a more specific example of linking traditional schoolwork to children's background and culture:

Several weeks ago, I was searching for a poem relevant to Thanksgiving. About the best the anthologies could offer was that time-honored middle-class classic about "Over the river and through the woods, to grandmother's house we go." I thought wryly that not even the middle-class child can relate to that. In a current issue of Ebony, Jr., *I found the following:*

A crust that's flaky and tender and light,
A creamy filling that tastes so right.
Momma's sweet potato pie's way out of sight!
Always be good to the very last bite!

Perfect! The content was familiar, concrete and sensory. When I read it to the children, I syncopated the rhythm in the style of the play songs and accentuated each line with a simple pattern of hand movements. The result? They picked it up with only one repetition. We dramatized it, illustrated it, and made a Thanksgiving booklet to "carry" home. Later several commented that "momma liked that book so much she's gonna save it."[4]

Another skilled teacher of upper-grade children brought the matter of language to conscious attention and actually played language games with his students. They would say a sentence in "Country," and he would repeat it in "General Electric" (the names the students gave to their dialect and to the general American dialect). Then they would try to reverse the roles. The teacher was able to help his students play with language because he had earned their trust in classroom and extra classroom interactions and by visiting their homes. The staff had also developed a highly accepting climate in the school. The teacher respected the students' language and in turn gained respect for what he taught.[5]

It is not always possible to work in such an open way, especially in the beginning. Teachers who try to talk "black talk" run the risk that students will think they are being made fun of or put down. Trust must be established, for language is a vital expression of a person's ego.

Black language is a systematic, patterned variety of English that performs functions for people in their social setting that standard English could not. Children, especially when they stay in the ghetto or retain family and friendship contacts there, need to retain skill in their own dialect. Kenneth Johnson points out that attempting to replace children's own language and culture with ones that are acceptable in school is asking them "to replace a functional language system with one that is nonfunctional."[6] The language they speak works within the subculture. It is an identity label; as both Riessman and Johnson note, it forms a bond between people. Children cannot reject the language of their culture without rejecting everyone and everything they love. Consequently, an attack on a person's language is an attack on the person. Anyone whose language is constantly corrected or ridiculed will respond with frustration or hostility.

Educators may not understand that hostility, even if they perceive it. It is too easy to forget or dismiss the link between language and ego, especially when one's own language is the dominant one. Sensitivity to the link between language and psyche, however, can enable teachers to recognize and respect personality and cultural differences that are presently incomprehensible or seem to be merely frustrating aberrations. Psycholinguistic research has opened ways of viewing the

world and its peoples that are wholly new to educators whose perceptions have been circumscribed by the educational methods and traditions of Western culture. Those new views free teachers to see beyond the bounds imposed by experience, precept, and admonition.

Instruction in inner-city as well as suburban schools would benefit from a deeper comprehension of the ways in which language is related to human behavior. Some cultures are based on the spoken word; others on the written word. Each exerts a strong influence on perception, behavior, and life-style. Literary traditions and oral traditions involve different views of what information is useful and practical; consequently, they prize different sources of information and, at the same time, limit ways of perceiving.[7] Those perceptions influence what people can comprehend and are reflected in different ways of behaving in interpersonal situations. For example, the two traditions impose different relationships to time. "Oral" people behave much more spontaneously and with more immediacy than "literary" people, enabling them to carry out spontaneous, improvised acts with others.

Oral language can, furthermore, transmit feelings and emotions that are difficult to communicate in writing. Literary traditions "screen out" some emotions, not only in documents, but in everyday transactions among literate peoples. Life governed by literary values is more controlled and organized, and a person raised in the literary tradition may lose touch with, and ability to communicate about, life experiences that fall outside the pale of written expression. As a result, teachers who are trained to value literary expression often find the poor child's expressions of oral traditions and values frustrating, threatening, or impossible to relate to. Such teachers should receive preservice and inservice training that takes them beyond the bounds of their own literary heritage and enables them to engage children with new perspectives.[8]

The limitations of space make it difficult to discuss here many of the issues treated in *The Inner-City Child*, several of which deserve greater attention from educators. For example, Riessman discusses tests, testing, and test biases, particularly as they relate to controversies over IQ and intelligence. In reporting the impact of testing

"Most educators do not expect much of poor children, especially children who are both poor and black."

on inner-city children, he again benefits from recent critical research in the field. Extended discussion is required, however, if we are to reconcile the disrepute into which tests have rightfully fallen with the need for instruction that clearly states its aims and objectives and continually evaluates itself in terms of specific, observable outcomes. Perhaps testing itself should not be maligned so much as *what we have chosen to test* and, in consequence, what we assume it is important to learn.

Another critical issue that Riessman discusses is diagnosis. Clinical language permeates education today, particularly in special education or remedial programs, and such words as "diagnosis" and "prescription" can direct attention to careful observation of behavior and individualization of instruction.

But clinical approaches backfire when educators limit diagnosis to ferreting out children's weaknesses and deficiencies. Diagnosis also means finding out what the individual knows and can do, Riessman argues. Teachers need to find ways to "diagnose" their students' strengths and competencies as starting points for further learning. Informal testing, observation, interaction, and home visits are excellent sources of such diagnosis. Teachers who search for strengths must first believe that they will find them, and Riessman's book can help teachers acquire that positive belief.

Riessman also stresses the need to have more black professionals and other workers in inner-city schools. He does not deal with the politics of desegregating faculties throughout the school system, though it is implicit in his argument that "ghettoizing" black teachers in black schools merely reinforces the ill effects of school and neighborhood segregation.

It is important for both black and white children to see black teachers in the schools they attend. While they need not always be taught by a black teacher, all children should have black teachers at some point in their school careers. And it is particularly important for children to observe black (as well as white) educators who make decisions, perform effectively, and are respected by their peers. If blacks are not employed at various levels in the staff hierarchy, it is difficult for teachers to convince both black and white children that the school system respects black people and expects them to succeed.

One phenomenon that receives too little attention in *The Inner-City Child* is the self-fulfilling expectation. Most educators do not expect much of poor children, especially children who are both poor and black. Children in compensatory education programs are not expected to be as bright as middle-class children, or to read and write as well. As children's strengths are ignored or seen as deficiencies, and as their weaknesses are emphasized, these low expectations are fulfilled. When children are placed in situations where they *must* fail, their performance on traditional school tasks can hardly be other than low.

Black parents and activists have decried self-fulfilling expectations for at least a decade, but few have specified how these expectations are communicated or how more positive norms could be developed in schools and classrooms. Despite the interest aroused a few years ago by such books as *Pygmalion in the Classroom*, moreover, there is little evidence of increasing sensitivity to the pedagogical truism that all of us force others to behave in ways that prove what we think about them.[9] Nowhere is that truism more evident than in inner-city schools, and nowhere does it have a more devastating effect on human beings.

Erosion of the spirit is commonplace in inner-city schools, even more so than in other schools. Children are subject to constant reminders of their "unacceptability" in the dominant society. The school board's decision to segregate students into identifiably poor schools, the administrator's decision not to provide an instrumental music program, and the teacher's decision not to display students' work in the halls or classrooms, add up to a negative curriculum that bombards the students with rejection. Professionals suffer from the same curriculum as well, and they often feel unrewarded by the system.

Those who are interested in educating inner-city children must be aware that schooling results from *interaction* between students and various aspects of the school. That relationship seems self-evident, yet failure to account for it had a disastrous effect on programs initiated during the abortive War on Poverty and on other federal attempts to improve schooling for inner-city and other children from minority cultures.[10]

A recent study by the Educational Testing Service has refocused attention on the

school's impact on such students, stressing once more the universally ignored caveat that we can be more effective by changing the schools to meet students where they are, than by taking on the Procrustean task of reshaping the children to fit the schools.[11]

The ETS study found that effectively integrated schools had certain characteristics in common. For one thing, the faculties used both the formal and the informal curriculum to teach effective race relations. Consciously and conscientiously, they used multicultural materials, promoted biracial projects, and assigned integrated groups of students to work on both classroom and extracurricular activities.

The principals in the schools were evaluated highly by their faculties. They supported integrated activities, interacted well with people of all races, and exercised positive influence in the school district. Both teachers and administrators were visibly supportive of positive racial attitudes, and faculties worked to reduce interpersonal conflicts and tension among themselves and their students.

Findings such as these are important for all schools that serve black students, whether they are desegregated or still suffering the ill effects of segregation.

When we search for ways to teach inner-city children, we find that educational practices that are good for black children are also productive with white children. Conversely, those practices that are harmful for black children are harmful for other children as well. Improving educational programs for the inner-city child will improve programs for all children, just as improved civil rights for black people brought improved economic and social conditions for many other groups (women, teachers, and white students among them).

It is difficult to understand why that is surprising. Perhaps many affluent children adapt to incompetent educational practices well enough to give the impression that such practices are effective when, in fact, they are not. Poor children do not adapt as well to bad methods, and so it *appears* that they need some unique educational approach. But that is not the case. Educating inner-city children requires no more and no less than the application of some ancient wisdom about learning:

- ☐ Start where the learner is.
- ☐ Surround learners with instructors they have come to know, trust, and respect.
- ☐ Surround learners with instructors who come to know, trust, and respect them.
- ☐ Link new learning with past experience and reinforce the connection.
- ☐ Help the learners see how new learning fits into a whole pattern.
- ☐ Take time to build prerequisite skills or knowledge before expecting learners to integrate new material.

Educators have not learned how to put these precepts into practice for any children, although they are sometimes visible in school life. In many instances, where these precepts do permeate the school climate, it is because of the close connection between the child's participation in the dominant culture and that culture's affiliation with all of the agencies that influence teachers and schools—not because school personnel have consciously introduced them into the life of the school. Too few educators know how to apply these precepts in common pedagogical practice. It is small wonder, then, that professors, teachers, and administrators have not applied them to the instruction of minority children.

As a basis for instructional programs that are rooted in the strengths and styles of inner-city children, Riessman advocates implementing contact approaches;[12] letting students learn by teaching other students;[13] and using assistants or paraprofessionals with backgrounds similar to those of the students.[14] These are promising practices, and in schools where they are valued and are not merely formalized responses to some external program, they have been successful. But the key to their success is the school staff's commitment to them and ability to internalize their importance. Securing that commitment is a goal to which few reform policies or programs have addressed themselves over the past two decades.[15]

True educational change requires fundamental alteration in the organization and conduct of schools. Although it is generally known what those changes are, they may be impossible to effect on a large scale without concomitant changes in society (in this regard Christopher Jencks is prophetic, however much one may quarrel with his methodology or the changes he

"Erosion of the spirit is commonplace in inner-city schools, even more so than in other schools."

suggests).

In the events since 1960, the schools have proved themselves impervious to fundamental changes of the type that are needed. Diligent reformers recognize that this resistance is not the result of individual perfidy, malice, or ignorance, however. It is, rather, a systemic resistance that is as easily seen in teacher and administrator preparation, policy-making and administrative practices, and legislative and political manipulations, as in the trained incapacities of teachers and administrators.

Without doubt, any widespread reform must begin by eliminating trained incapacity among professionals in the educational system. Aspiring teachers and administrators must have opportunities to discuss and analyze their feelings, perceptions, and experiences with inner-city children. That discussion must be conducted by people who have insight enough about inner-city life to counter the aspirants' misconceptions. College faculties have very few professors with such insight (it is not enough to have taught in the inner city, since that experience may have been colored by unexamined prejudice and fear). Consequently, even in the few instances where training programs provide experience with inner-city children, too many of the trainees' original expectations are reinforced, and the experience is distorted. Indeed, admonitions such as those Riessman presents have had even less impact on higher education than on urban schools.

The widespread reforms necessary for educating inner-city children are not underway, and their implementation will take a long time and require many resources. We have arrived at the heart of what can be done: any improvement in the instruction of inner-city children will have to come from the earnest efforts of individual teachers and principals who are willing to alter their own personal practices to provide students with the sense of worth that is essential for effective education.

The fate of poor children in public schools has always rested in the hands of people whose personal qualities and professional commitments permit them to circumvent contrary administrative practices, surpass their own training, and ignore admonitions that "it can't be done." Whatever is done to build on the strengths that inner-city children bring to school will be done by individual school people who find the personal and professional strength to do it.

NOTES

1. Ida Brown-Bragdon, "How To Help Migrant Children," *Today's Education* 65 (January/February 1976): 57-58.

2. The program is described in William W. Wayson, "Organizing Urban Schools for Responsible Leadership," *Phi Delta Kappan* 52 (February 1971): 344-47. The list was developed as part of an institute on "Teaching a Sense of Control Over Environment in Inner City Schools," funded by Title III, ESEA.

3. Basil Bernstein, *Class, Codes and Control, Volume I: Theoretical Studies Towards a Sociology of Language* (London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1971).

4. Janet Lobdell, "Like a Wildflower Bloomin' in a Sidewalk Crack," unpublished report on action research (Lima, Ohio: Ohio State University, 1976).

5. The teacher was William Eyman, now director of an alternative school in Perth Amboy, New Jersey. For a publication that offers useful suggestions and lists of resources for working effectively with children in urban schools, see: Ellen Barnes, William Eyman, and Maddy E. Engolz, *Teach and Reach* (Syracuse: Human Policy Press, 1974).

6. Kenneth R. Johnson, "Teacher's Attitude Toward the Nonstandard Negro Dialect—Let's Change It," in *Language and the Language Arts*, ed. Johanna S. DeStefano and Sharon Fox (Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1974), p. 157.

7. The psychosocial effects of oral and literary traditions are discussed in Ben Sidran, *Black Talk* (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1971).

8. A readily available source to help teachers understand the inner-city child's verbal games is Herbert Foster, *Ribbin', Jivin', and Playin' the Dozens* (New York: Ballinger, 1974). See also: William Labov, *Language in the Inner City* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1972); and Johanna S. DeStefano, *Language, Society, and Education: A Profile of Black English* (Worthington, Ohio: Charles A. Jones, 1973).

9. For a review of research on the effects of teachers' expectations, see: Janet Elashoff and Richard E. Snow, eds., *Pygmalion Reconsidered* (Worthington, Ohio: Charles A. Jones, 1971).

10. William W. Wayson, "Educating for Renewal in Urban Communities," *National Elementary Principal* 51 (April 1972): 5-18.

11. Garlie A. Forehand, Marjorie Ragosta, and Donald A. Rock, *Conditions and Processes of Effective School Desegregation* (Princeton, N.J.: Educational Testing Service, 1976). See also: Garlie A. Forehand and Marjorie Ragosta, *A Handbook for Integrated Schooling* (Princeton, N.J.: Educational Testing Service, 1976).

12. Mario Fantini and Gerald Weinstein, *The Disadvantaged Child: Challenges to Education* (New York: Harper & Row, 1970).

13. Alan Gartner, Mary Kohler, and Frank Riessman, *Children Teach Children* (New York: Harper & Row, 1971).

14. Alan Gartner, *Paraprofessionals and Their Performance* (New York: Praeger, 1971).

15. Paul Berman et al., *Federal Programs Supporting Educational Change* (Santa Monica, Calif.: Rand Corporation, 1975). See also: Michael J. Wargo et al., *E.S.E.A. Title I: A Reanalysis and Synthesis of Evaluation Data from Fiscal Year 1965 through 1970* (Palo Alto, Calif.: American Institute for Research, 1972).

GLOSSARY OF ORAL EXPRESSIVE STYLES*

BAD MOUTHIN(G) - to speak against or make unfavorable remarks about someone or something; to put a curse on someone; negative idle gossipping; slander; defamation of one's character.
SYN: shit towin, lugg droppin, larcen-up, talking shit, buck one's luck ("buck you' luck")

BLOW - BLOW (ON) - to confront a person face to face with a relentless interrogation; a sensitivity session or encounter group.
SYN: to base, fat mouth, sound on, group, jam, scream, sound.

COP A PLEA - a penitent plea for leniency; to entreat or beg for pity or forgiveness; to cop out; to plead to one of many violations for reduced sentence.
SYN: soprana, gripping.

DOZENS - the DIRTY DOZENS - Using stylized rhymes, the dozens is played as a verbal combat or game of one-upmanship in which two persons (usually adolescents) exchange uncomplimentary remarks about each other's parents, relatives, or socio-economic status. The majority of the derogatory remarks are usually about the other's mother.
SYN: sygnifying, woofin', playing the dozens, playing, sounding,

FRONT (IN') OFF - to rebuke or loud talk someone with the intent of embarrassing the person or making him/her an example before a crowd; putting someone down in order to look big, authoritarian, or to save face.

GIBB(ING) - JIBBIN' - Probably from jiving; talking excessively and extraneously; running off at the mouth non-stop; trying to sound intellectual.
SYN: Jaw jackin'.

GRIPP(IN') - a sniveling and whimpering plea for sympathy; a dramatized, hand wringing entreaty. Unlike copping a plea, which is artistic rapping, gripping is a more sycophantic pleading.
SYN: cop a plea

HIGH SIDIN' (HIGH IN') - to tease, berate or poke fun at someone who is in a bad fix or less fortunate; to act haughty, pious, pompous, and innocent; joking and cutting up (from the sidelines) at the expense of another.
SYN: signifying, hoorahin', woofin', frontin' off.

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*Excerpted from "Glossary of Oral Expressive Styles," developed by William Parker and Ernie Smith

JIVIN' - phoney put on; muddle or play practical jokes on or with someone; prankish; not doing one's best at some task; continuously putting something off, fooling around.
SYN: Half steppin', hoorahin', such'n'jivin', siggin'.

MAU MAUIN' - Originally an African liberation organization in Kenya which terrorized Whites into submission. Now, threatening Whitey seriously. Bowin' on Whitey or those in authority (usually Whites); alluding to the threat of terror tactics and violence if demands are not met. Distinguished from "selling woof tickets," which implies no actual intent of carrying out alluded terror.

MOUTH PIECE - an attorney or advocate who intercedes because he/she presents the facts more precisely.
SYN: lip, jaw jackin'.

MUMBLIN' - a stylized manner of blank verse "rhaposodizing" in which words are barely audible and unintelligible. Intonation, inflection and gestures, however, convey the meaning of the missing phrases.

PIMP TALK - the heavy conversation of hustlers and articulate Black males who presumably are so glib and smooth they have beguiled women into prostitution.

PROTECTION TALK - ego defense conversation; conversation in which the person's remarks are designed to cover up an embarrassing situation. In order to deal with feelings of embarrassment and shame the defensive person suggests that the whole situation was deliberately contrived and that the advantage was actually his/hers.

PULL COAT - to caution or signal someone to be careful by tugging their coat from behind (non-verbal); to overtly inform or alert someone by systematically explaining in much detail why they should not make a particular move.

RAPPIN' - origirally "rhapsodize"; to fascinate or dazzle someone with conversation; to flatter and express deep devotion to a guy or girl.

RHAPSODIZED - to be or have been fascinated by someone with a heavy rap or conversation.

RUNNING IT DOWN - to explain to the last detail how something goes or does not go and repeat the process again as a re-run.

SHIT TOWIN' - to spread idle gossip without verifying its authenticity; distinguished from bad mouthin', in which the rumors may or may not be true, shit towin' is always untrue.

SHOWBOATIN' - to show off; slapstick comic or soft shoe; a person who has a compulsion to clown when in the presence of whites; one who elicits laughs by using stigmatized forms of language.

SHUCKIN' AND JIVIN' - talking and joking while working, especially while picking cotton and corn shucking; now work in general; akin to "lolly gaggin" -- joking and socializing without free time; coinage (in jazz) -- talking or joking while playing; musician's jargon; talking and joking while "gigin'".

SIGNIFY(IN') - to reproach with scornful or sarcastic language; to jeer, or mock; to taunt with meddlesome, irksome comments; or annoying gibes; to goad or coax two people into a fist fight by making them appear afraid of each other.

SOUNDIN' - to test someone out by suggesting something uncomplimentary about their parents or close relatives.

SWEET MOUTHIN' - an enthusiastic, sometimes high-flown, expression of praise; to flatter or express accolades and adulation.

TALKING PROPER - flying under false colors by pretentiously using standard English; the ability to mimic with mastery the phonological, grammatical, and semantic cues of standard or formal English.
SYN: fading someone funny, puttin' on airs, flying under false colors.

TALKING SHIT (TALKIN' TRASH) - meddlesome irritating remarks which are meant to provoke a fight (usually hearsay).

TAUTIN' - to lead astray, to mislead by offering helpful advice or unsolicited information.

TESTIFY(IN') - to bear witness in church; to stand and make a personal avowal of faith and belief in God.

TOAST(IN') - jokes, fables and tales which are told during social events or lunch breaks; each person takes turns telling tall tales and poetic fables.

TOM TOM (TOMMING) - a drum for African signals; a messenger, usually a trustee (Uncle Tom) who has free movement within a jail or penal institution.
SYN: grapevine, jeffin'.

WOOFIN' (WOLFING) - bluffing or threatening pretentiously; a verbal combat or heated exchange; usually one's scared and the others are glad of it.
SYN: basin', dozens, fat mouthin', jibbin', johnin', shuckin' and jivin', signifying, soundin'.

WOOF TICKET - to threaten, bluff or extort by alluding or intimating the use of physical violence to obtain something, usually with no intention of carrying out the threat.

Educating for Renewal in Urban Communities

by

William W. Wayson

IF American society truly wishes to educate children from urban ghettos, whatever their ethnic origins, then we must reexamine what education is, how learning takes place, and how we may restructure institutions to promote learning. All evidence at hand indicates that the existing educational system cannot educate masses of socially disadvantaged, politically impotent children. A decade of publicized searching has discovered no way in which the challenge can be met. Only in a few schools and a few isolated classrooms have disadvantaged children obtained an education. These exceptions tend to be staffed by administrators and teachers who do not confine themselves within the boundaries that ordinarily limit schools. They have changed the system.

Close observers agree that schools must be changed if the child and society are to be served well. Successful programs are almost always characterized by changes in normal procedures. Textbooks and curriculum grades are eliminated. Unorthodox teachers, such as uncertified ones or neighborhood aides or junior high school tutors, are used. The school is opened to greater student and parental influences. The classroom is moved into the community, or still other unorthodox approaches to teaching and instruction are taken. All of these approaches violate traditional institutional taboos. All require new conceptions of what will educate a child. Building curriculums for educating disadvantaged children should be a process for building social institutions, for the child is educated by daily interactions with all of the institutions that affect him.

Educators frequently blame the home or the neighborhood for "preventing learning," but we often fail to recognize that these powerful influences educate children more indelibly than do most planned lessons. Consequently, they could constitute powerful instructional programs for educators who sense the relative weakness of isolated classrooms.

I wish to propose a thesis based on the assumptions that it is valuable for society to educate disadvantaged children, that such children can be educated, that the goal of education is to promote maximum effectiveness in adult life, and that the school system is responsible for obtaining that goal no matter what the current life status of the student. This thesis I call the "Lion in Winter Thesis," because it was constructed as I watched Peter O'Toole and Katharine Hepburn in that remarkable film. The thesis was strengthened as I read the following description of the career of Henry II, Plantagenet king:

> He found England exhausted by nearly twenty years of anarchy, with every cog in the . . . machine of State either broken or rusty with disuse, the people sick of feudal misrule, but liable at any moment to slip back into it for want of means to preserve order. He left England with a judicial and administrative system and a habit of obedience to government which prevented the recurrence of anarchy. . . .
>
> The greatest of many benefits that Henry II conferred upon England was legal reform. . . . For the increase of power and jurisdiction that he gave to the King's central courts and to their offshoots travelling in the shires, rendered possible the rapid growth of English "Common Law," that is to say a native system common to the whole land, in place of the various provincial customs still administered in the Shire and Hundred Courts and in the countless private jurisdictions.[1]

My thesis is that there is an analogy between what Henry II did to build a nation and what can be done to build a modern educational society in black and white ghettos in any large city. It is not the only way to improve ghetto schools, but its underlying assumptions must be accounted for by any other method that strives for success. Like most analogies, this one does not fit perfectly. The reader should not stretch it too far beyond the parallels drawn directly in this text, else he may miss the major point. It would be a mistake to assume that principals should emulate a medieval tyrant to obtain the goals of education;* nevertheless, educators may extrapolate from Henry's situation a way of viewing their problems that will enable them to formulate some new ways of resolving them. One can better understand the thesis if one first views Henry's world and then translates it to the ghetto.

Medieval Baronies

Henry's world appears as an aglomeration of self-contained, self-sustaining, iso-

* For example, principals seldom hold as complete power as Henry held, nor are they well advised to use despotic means when approaching their communities to enter the interstices.

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lated baronial estates. Each estate provided a relatively stable social order in which each person understood his rights and duties, his relationships with other people living on the estate, and what he could expect in return for his contribution to the community. Norms of social interaction were well-developed and commonly understood. The baron provided whatever protection was needed and within his power. The estate often provided enough personal security and social interaction to assure social continuity for generations. The institution was stable enough and fulfilled each person enough to win loyalty from almost all its members. The estates persisted and thrived.

But, as is depicted in Figure 1, each estate was isolated from the others. Though life within each was stable and sustaining, there could be no assurance that the life-style, the norms, or the social pecking order in Estate B would guarantee safety or security for a visitor from Estate A. There was nothing to assure that the two would commonly regard the same patterns of behavior.

Furthermore, the baron's protection extended only so far from his fortressed castle, and that left large areas between estates almost without protection. These areas I shall call the *interstices*. The interstices were governed by roving bands of outlaws or other equally dangerous characters. Consequently, travel from one estate to another was hazardous at best, and those who traveled tried to do so in large groups or with small personal armies, to protect them as much from their host as from marauders who threatened the roads. While this separation between small village units remained, it was impossible to build a nation. It was necessary to promote commerce and communication among the baronies to release the human energy and creativity that is stimulated by intercourse with persons of diverse experience.

Into this situation came Henry II, whose insights, skills, and military demeanor enabled him to administer the beginnings of the nation-state that became England. He fostered common rules of behavior among the baronies and made travel and commerce practical and possible. Much of this he accomplished by controlling the interstices between estates. He imposed English Common Law over the land and enforced it with himself as judge (however arbitrary he seemed at times), backed

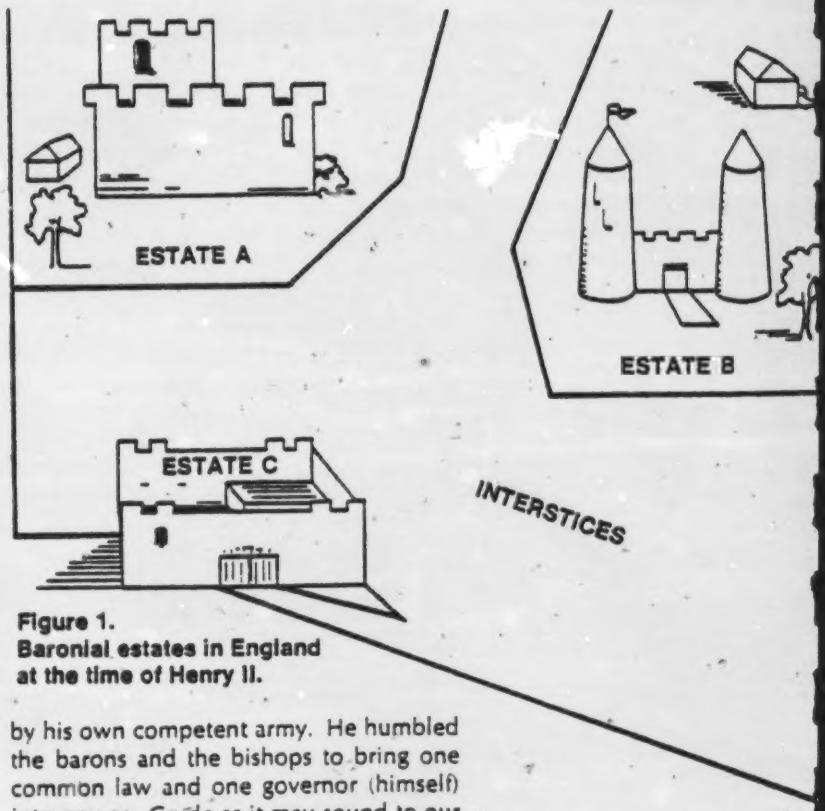

Figure 1.
Baronial estates in England at the time of Henry II.

by his own competent army. He humbled the barons and the bishops to bring one common law and one governor (himself) into power. Crude as it may sound to our modern ears, his administration fashioned a nation that for centuries afterward set the standard for social order, and he began governmental traditions that eventually led to the magnificent public documents that underlie the American system of constitutional government.

But the essential point for the thesis at hand is that no such progress was possible until those interstices were safe and secure for passageway. No nation was possible, no social progress was possible, so long as the inhabitants of each baronial estate were imprisoned by the surrounding countryside.

Urban Ghettos

One may liken life within a modern urban ghetto to the England and France of Henry's day. (See Figures 2 and 3.) Each home, like a baronial estate, has a relatively stable social order in which each person knows his rights and duties. He enters into fairly predictable relationships with the other people in that home. He knows what he can expect in return for his contribution.

Usually some adult (most commonly the mother) provides the administrative center for the unit, judging and enforcing and protecting. The home sustains life and provides enough solidarity to assure continuity within the home. The home elicits

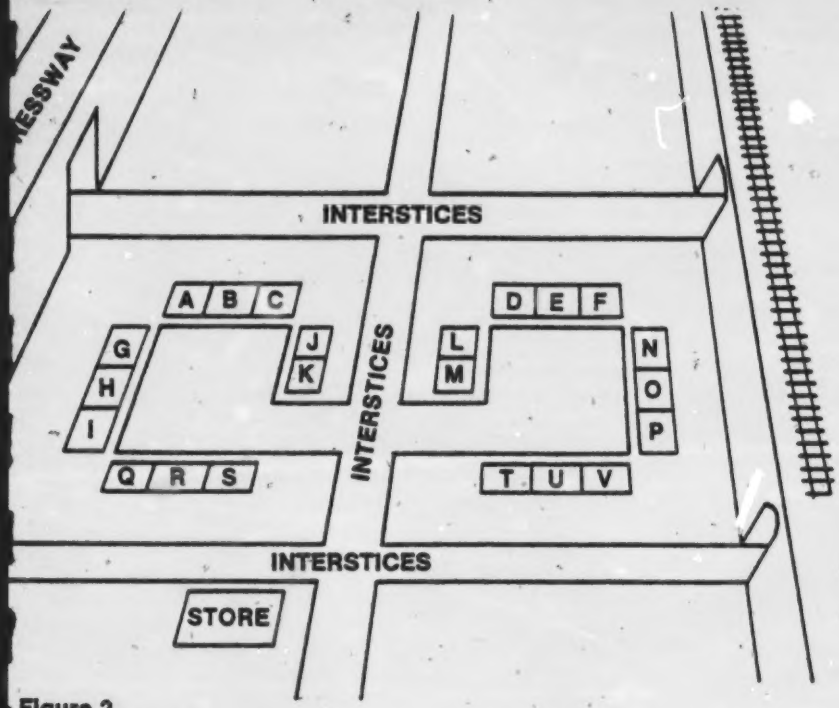

Figure 2.
Inner-city project, 1972.

a high level of loyalty from all members.

It is because of the existence of this home culture that the term "culturally deprived" is no longer used. Obviously, the child in his home has a culture; it is strong and it is sustaining. Most reliable reports indicate that in all but the worst ghettos, well over 80 percent of the homes are stable human institutions. This is one of the most valuable discoveries made by teachers when they visit homes. Daniel Moynihan's ill-fated study of family life in black ghettos[2] ran ashoal because too few people realized that his depressing description applied to only 15 or 20 percent of black families. Life is well-ordered, predictable, and goal-directed in most ghetto homes. That the life in some of these homes may violate tenets of middle class life does not at all change the fact that most disadvantaged children have a home environment in which they can function with some self-assurance.

But to people who know the ghetto, it is observable that many homes are isolated from other homes. Communication among them is often rare and suspicious. Many tenants move frequently and do not get to know one another very well. Parents are often preoccupied with a daily struggle against poverty and do not engage in "small talk" with one another about the rules of behavior in their homes. Rules governing eating, sleeping, and relating to relatives, to adults, to strangers, to privacy, and to private property differ widely from home to home. Mothers may be psychologically bound to their children in such a manner that they cannot accept the idea of their child engaging in unacceptable behavior, and they are therefore not open to neighbors' discussions about how to discipline children or about how their child has behaved. One of the worst features of a ghetto is that it forces people to live closely with others whose lives they despise. Many residents see their neighbors as losers, and even losers often don't want to associate with losers. Suspicion is rife about the poor way in which other people are bringing up their children and about the way in which one's own children will be led astray by "bad companions" who live nearby. Parents frequently send their children to spend summers in the South to keep them away from "bad kids." Neighborhood gossip and sermons in local churches often reinforce suspicions and divide neighbor from neighbor. Family feuds sometimes divide all generations in two households. Thus, the ghetto home is frequently separated from other homes in the community, and there are few means open for assuring any set of common expectations among the various homes. There is no assurance that norms and expectations are the same in Home A as in Home B. There is no assurance that the two will commonly regard the same patterns of behavior.*

Homes are separated by interstices just as the wilderness separated medieval baronial estates.[3] In high-rise apartment projects, the interstices are called hallways and elevator shafts and stairwells. In townhouses or garden-type one- or two-story projects, the interstices are called yards, sidewalks, and streets. But, like the medieval forests, these areas are free of the influence of the "lord of the manor." Some parents, perhaps, or grandparents, exercise extraordinary influence over their children and are able to control their behavior even outside the home. These children seldom participate in the interstitial life. Most mothers or fathers who govern ghetto homes often do not try to extend their authority into the interstices, however. The informal rules governing life in the ghetto dictate that an adult is cautious about trying to correct the behavior of another person's child. The

* This condition is not confined to ghetto areas. Residents in middle-income suburbs complain that they know no one on the street and that their children are not safeguarded by the neighbors.

general rule for a parent is to turn his back unless the behavior is threatening his own household. Whatever the reasons (and there are many), the ghetto parent tends to feel that, because these interstices are publicly owned, they should be governed by paid, formal authorities, such as policemen and school personnel. Futhermore, these areas are considered so dangerous that the lay citizen will not risk his safety and well-being and community standing by interfering beyond his legal and physical capacity. Mind your own business" is the supreme dictum.

Of course, it is impossible for any society to supply enough formal authorities to govern the interstices. Authorities cannot be ever-present. Furthermore, formal authorities are considered to be—and, indeed, by temperament tend to be—alien to the ghetto. The figure of authority is usually of a different race, certainly of a different social group, and certainly possessed of more formal power. He often expresses attitudes different from those of ghetto residents. The nature of his task conspires to make him bureaucratically calloused, cold, and unresponsive to the individual character of his clients, and he often feels that they prejudicially stereotype him. Authorities often abandon the ghetto interstices to take up more thankful tasks elsewhere. Consequently, the interstices between ghetto homes are governed neither by adult residents nor by authorities.

For the ghetto child, the interstices are governed by the peer group—the other kids of his age or older. The basic law is jungle law, with the largest and the craftiest emerging, often undisputed, as rulers. Disputes generally arise only to determine which of the largest or craftiest will emerge supreme. Since only a few may rule, the many are subjugated by fear and insecurity. The majority of children learn fear, insecurity, and lack of confidence in what they can do to make themselves safe as they move about.

The majority adopt a life pattern that makes them safe in such an environment. They become cynical, suspicious, fearful, insecure, subjugated, and overwhelmed by a sense of powerlessness. These traits help children survive in the ghetto, but they render them ineffectual in strange environments. Although a few ghetto children learn a kind of grassroots sensitivity and political savvy that enables them to move in many environments, most learn

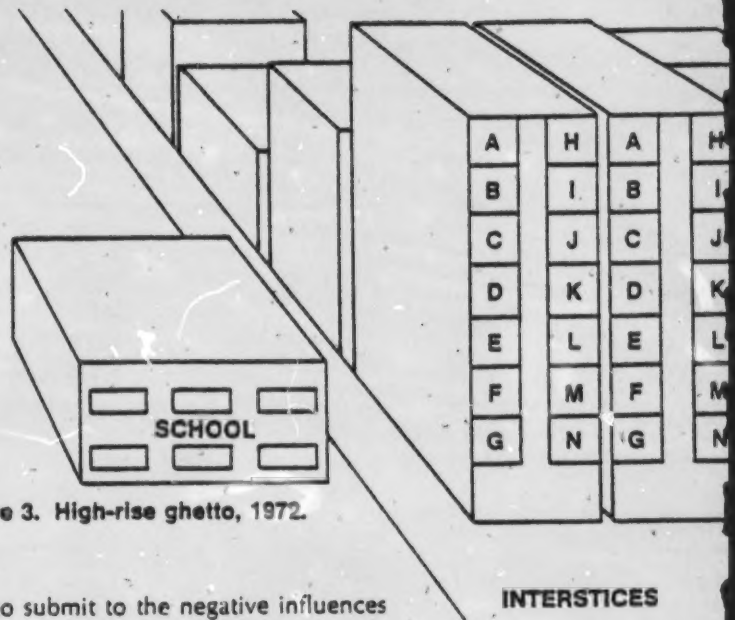

Figure 3. High-rise ghetto, 1972.

only to submit to the negative influences of the interstices. The rulers of the interstices exert far greater influence over learning than do parents—except in rare instances. Residents recognize this phenomenon by saying that the child "learns in the street." The street is the powerful teacher, the great socializer, and the greatest educational force in the child's life. What the child learns in the street is survival, and he survives by submitting to forces that seem overwhelming. His adaptations affect his behavior throughout life; they are his education.*

Governmental and charitable agencies in this environment tend to reinforce, rather than change, the street culture. Schools, in particular, are notoriously isolated from the neighborhood. The school walls itself in and, in effect, becomes merely another baronial estate separated from the homes by interstices filled with both physical and psychological obstacles. The school develops a kind of stability of its own with a life-style and social climate that is unique to itself, but it has little influence off its premises. Teachers do not relate to the ghetto community but spend only their working days within the school walls. Except in rare instances, there is little or no communication between the school and the surrounding neighborhood. Often the school makes no attempt to extend its authority; for example, rules against fighting in the school often permit fighting just outside the school fence. Indeed, many ghetto schools reinforce peer group rule not

* Of course, there are many residents who shield their children from the street. Though they may occasionally be on the street, they are not of it.

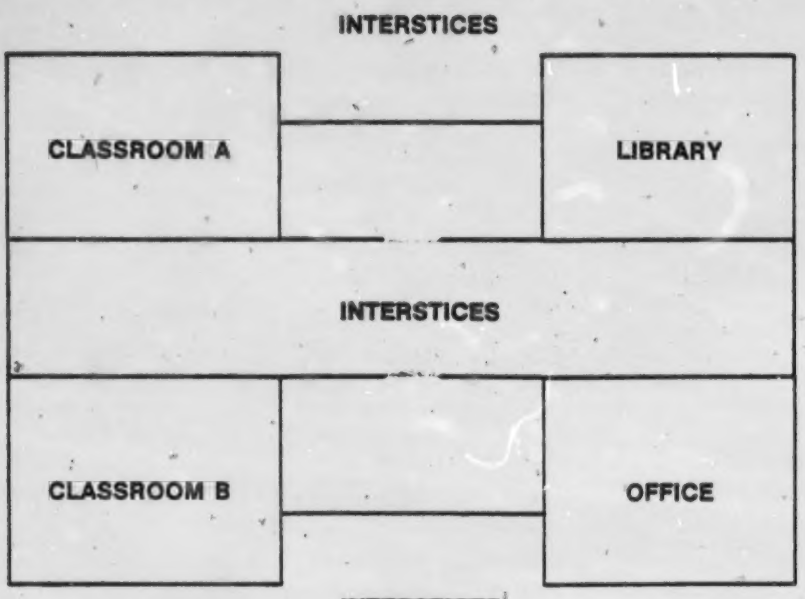

Figure 4. School, 1972.

only by default but by supporting the strongest and craftiest leaders and by failing to use school authority in any effective way to protect the majority from the dominating minority. It is a common phenomenon that the peer group "runs the school," determining what activities will be sanctioned at any given time. Because the teachers and principal have learned few ways to countervail such authority, they often submit to or accommodate themselves to the very forces that govern the interstices.

Consequently, the dominant teacher in the life of the ghetto child is the peer group that governs the interstices. It is also evident that the ghetto child learns adaptations that inhibit his leaving the ghetto. The majority of children learn to fear new environments and do not learn behaviors that would enable them to be effective in new circumstances. They grow up thinking that fate and environmental forces are irresistible. It is probable that the dilution and negation of street-peer influences are the "magic" that makes integration a powerful educational tool.

The person or agency that wishes to educate ghetto children to have the widest number of options will have to influence the interstices. What can be accomplished without extending one's efforts into the community pales beside the endemic and ever-present influence of the street. Whoever governs the street, as it influences the child, educates the child.

Like Henry II, the true educator will have to enter into activities that build some common set of social expectations among the homes in the ghetto and that reinforce those expectations with a set of norms that govern the interstices. Those activities are strikingly like Henry's attempt to build a society. In effect, that is what the educational effort is all about —building a society out of disparate family units, molding a sense of a community whose citizens are governed by a common minimal set of social behaviors and attitudes that are taught during childhood and that govern through self-control. The cement of society is the accepted norm that individuals permit themselves to be governed by even when other sanctions are not in evidence. To build self-discipline is the task of the educator, though he cannot accomplish it alone.

It is not an impossible task. It is a process that Henry intuitively used; the precedents are established. The procedures are also known. They are procedures of involvement, of judicious exercise of authority after one has won it, of making the community an educational place.

The Ghetto School

One of the first steps that has to be taken if the school is to influence the streets is to view the school building itself as a problem in society building analogous to that in the larger arena of the community. The school building, as Figure 4 shows, is also a collection of separate classrooms within which each individual teacher works out some sort of social order with the students in her room for the time they are there. These classrooms are much like baronial estates, and they, too, are separated by interstitial areas called hallways, cafeterias, and playgrounds. The isolation of the classroom may be expressed as an elementary teacher stated it: "If there is a fight in the room, you handle it as best you can, but if it is in the hall, you ignore it." What small education takes place in the classroom is negated in the halls, the offices, the cafeteria, or wherever "noneducational" contacts are made.

Teachers, like ghetto parents, leave the interstices to other authorities—usually the principal and sometimes policemen. But principals and even policemen cannot always be present; consequently, the can-

not control the hallways. The peer group that rules the street often rules in the halls and locker rooms, making the school an educational force more congruent with the street than with expressed educational aims. The school becomes an instrument for supporting the negative street influence and for reinforcing the climate of fear and insecurity that prevails for the majority of students.

Like Henry II, the school staff must extend its influence into the hallways, must establish a rule of reason and law that will win the allegiance of the students, and must foster communication and commerce among all of the fortressed rooms in the building. The process is reasonably well established in behavioral science and may be initiated by administrators or teachers. "Rule of reason and law" should not be confused with the popular cry for "law and order," which means some resort to city and state laws. What is called for are laws (or accepted rules of conduct) developed within the school, adapted to its social needs, and enforced to protect all its inhabitants. These need not conflict with state or local laws, but they do not emanate from external authority.

If the school wishes to assume control of or exert influence over the interstitial areas in which children are truly educated for life, the first step is to make the school a society in which first staff members and then students begin to share common purposes and to engage in commonly accepted behaviors that support education.[4] The faculty must engage in institution building and human development, with the subject matter of the classroom taking second or third place. No other educational purposes can be achieved without making the school a place where education can flourish. The process of making it so is more educational for both staff and students than any other lesson in which they can engage.

The Role of the Principal

The principal is probably the most important actor in making the school work. Certainly, whoever would be a modern Henry II must be a leader with authority enough to set processes in motion inside the school. The school as it is typically organized responds more readily to an appointed authority. Though a teacher or a custodian could emerge as a leader,* it is less likely than that a principal would. For leadership to emerge despite a resisting pricipal is all but impossible.**

The principal's power is formidable. He mediates the goals of the organization; he interprets law and policies governing the school; he controls many of the rewards and much of the communication in the faculty; he makes many of the major decisions affecting instruction; and he influences most interactions with the community outside the school. Though the principal often feels weak,[3] and he is increasingly accused of being so, it is not because these powers are not available to him. Rather, he may be weak either because he does not recognize his powers and thus exercises them by default or because he has not learned how to exercise them in ways that make the school effective. No other person in the school can command so many of the forces essential to making a program effective. The principal holds much responsibility for their widespread disuse or misuse.

The principal's power derives from the fact that most people do what they do because they think they are expected to do it. Teachers give marks, use textbooks, struggle to get a quiet classroom, fight kids to take their hats off, belittle children's work, march rigidly through a daily schedule, avoid taking time to resolve discipline problems, leave the school at 3:30, and so on because they think important people expect them to. There are really only four types of people important enough and visible enough to reinforce teachers' perceptions about what they are expected to do: the principal, the supervisor, the faculty, and the parents. Teachers seldom know what "the parents" think; as a result, much mythology about what parents want grows up from a few incidents with parents. Teachers seldom see a supervisor, so much mythology

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* If there is to be a rival for the role of an educational Henry II, it probably will be the teachers' organizations, which could exercise strong leadership to get a faculty to act in the ways described above.

** Neither teachers nor parents can overcome or bypass an opposing or quiescent principal. Faculties or communities seldom have the skill, stamina, or courage to change a principal's actions or to oust him (though they can frighten him or make him uncomfortable). The effort required to oust a principal usually exhausts a group, even when it has been successful. For most, it just isn't worth it. Then, of course, the lack of specificity in complaints about the school makes it possible that any action may be an injustice, a circumstance that probably protects fewer innocents than is commonly believed.

grows up about supervisors' expectations. Certain faculty members affirm these mythologies, generally exaggerating them to suit their own personal desires, and exercise great control over expressions of "faculty" expectations. For example, a young teacher told me that experienced teachers had told her that she was "lowering the profession" by visiting homes, and others had assured her that "parents didn't want her." The principal is considered knowledgeable about both parent and faculty expectations, and he is also the ever-present voice of official expectations from the school board. Small wonder that a teacher reports, "I don't know why I do it, but if a principal asks me to crawl through a knothole, I will."

Most principals are not aware of their power as superego for the school, though they may notice that teachers are uncomfortable in their presence, particularly if the room is in disarray or if students are not seated and quiet. Out of ignorance, most principals constantly reinforce teachers' expectations that they are supposed to teach in ways that inhibit learning. The school as we know it and criticize it is controlled not by real expectations, but by the school personnel's *thoughts* about what those expectations are. Those thoughts are continually reinforced by mythology and default.

For example, a teacher might show the principal a set of dittos poorly reproduced and insist that he have the teacher aide redo them, saying, "You know how to tell her without criticizing her." If the principal talks with the aide, at least the following expectations are reinforced (that is to say, they are *taught*):

1. The principal is the supreme power in the building.
2. Only the principal can talk to an aide about her work.
3. Teachers aren't supposed to help other adults do their work better.
4. Criticism is a hurting thing, all right for teachers to do to kids, but dangerous to try with adults.
5. Teachers can't learn how to supervise aides.
6. Aides can't see that their work isn't done correctly.

Such incidents are repeated daily. Teachers ask principals to discipline children. Teachers ask whether they can take a walking trip. Teachers look around to see whether pictures of black people are up in the hall. Teachers see no one else at school after 3:30. Teachers hear no one say it is better to try something and make a mistake than not to try at all. Teachers see that the principal isn't as careful in disciplining the Brookses as the Finneys. By default, accident, or ignorant complicity, the principal supports incorrect assumptions over and over again. When one considers the number of inaccurate perceptions he himself holds about what he thinks he ought to do and how these perceptions govern his decisions about teachers' actions, the existence of *any* real educational activities seems a miracle.

If a principal can grasp how expectations are expressed and reinforced, he can begin to define whole new roles and more educational practices for himself, for the teacher, and for the school. If he is to act the part of Henry II, he will gain much power from that simple insight.

A modern Henry II must have some stature in the community as well as in the school. Again, the principal is in the best position to achieve this. Ghetto-born criticism of the schools arises from a feeling that the principal is not doing his duty, is not exercising his power—not from a feeling that he is powerless. In effect, his failure to use his power to make the school an educational force is interpreted as an abuse of that power. Furthermore, the abuse is felt to be purposeful rather than ignorant or unintended. More than one mother has told me, "If I had a college degree, I'd know what to do." The comment also reflects the naive faith that poor people have in education. That faith gives the principal, particularly the "good" principal, great stature in the school community because he is considered to be educated and he is seen as commanding the educational future for children from the neighborhood. Because he is "the boss," people assume that he is better educated than anyone else in the school. As a result, though other school personnel could lead the process of society building, principals are in the best position to exercise the required combination of internal and external power. However, it is a new role for the principal. Few have been selected, trained, or encouraged to build a community into an educational program. The task is one for a statesman, not a bureaucrat. What is needed is a new kind of principal, and candidates are in short supply.[6] Graduate schools and apprenticeships are not pro-

ducing any more.

There is an army of principals already in command who operate under two limitations that prevent their exercising leadership. First—and most limiting—is the feeling that they are not supposed to exercise leadership of the type discussed before: second—and most debilitating—they do not know how to exercise such leadership. Equip that army with skills through inservice development and charge them with purpose through administrative and school board policies and procedures, and we shall have mobilized a powerful force that could make entire communities into educational institutions for waging effective war on the ill effects of poverty.

How Can It Be Done?

The interstices are gaps between people, and those gaps must be filled with trust, mutually agreed on expectations, and a flow of ideas.. Social units form as a result of individuals interacting with one another about matters that affect their life together. Consequently, communication among people is the essential beginning for a modern community builder.[7]

Fostering a free flow of communication within the school is a prerequisite to building social order. Communication will not solve all problems, of course—just more of them than anything else. Creating bureaucratic rules and applying supervisory controls cause more problems in the long run than they resolve.

Thus, the school should be organized in such a manner that the staff will be in frequent communication with one another. Currently, very few school staffs communicate with one another about matters of any positive instructional significance. The isolated classroom is not a good base for an active organization. On the other hand, the total faculty is too large a unit to make day-to-day decisions. Consequently, the staff should operate in teams comprised of from six to twelve members. These decision-making groups

should include teachers, specialists, and paraprofessionals.

Their communication should be about problems that are important (preferably vital) to them. For example, these teams should make the decisions about materials, methods, schedules, and grouping that affect the children assigned to the team. Since neither goals nor supportive procedures can ever be as clear or as specific as one would like them to be, there is continual need to have people communicating about them—debating, evaluating, clarifying, and striving to understand them.

Such discussion takes place best when decisions are being made about how to divide time, people, space, rewards, energies, or other resources. These decisions are where true values are brought to bear, where the goals of the school are finally decided, yet they are usually made at some distance from teachers. Involvement in making these decisions helps to foster better understanding of goals and procedures in the school. Only those people involved in such decisions get a feeling of "owning" the decision and of belonging to the organization. Such a feeling is necessary before the staff can win respect and confidence from the community. If the staff is to know its goals and feel responsible for the procedures, *decision making should involve maximum participation from those who must carry out the decision.* The less there is of such participation, then the less the understanding, the less the commitment, the less effective the organization, and the less community confidence there is. The basis for the school's acceptability in the community must be demonstrated commitment to the well-being of the children it serves. That commitment must be demonstrated in actions understood by ghetto residents, if not by the larger community. It shines out of daily relationships with the child and community far more clearly than it resounds from pious statements.

Obviously, both teachers and students have to learn behaviors that can influence life in the interstices. Those behaviors are learned by living them day after day.

Life within every school should reflect and foster those behaviors that we would

like to see in the society we want. If a rule of law and reason is ever to prevail in the outside world, students and faculty should operate under such procedures in the school. Both should get practice in enacting, implementing, interpreting, and enforcing law appropriate to life in the school so that they may better exercise those behaviors in life outside the school. If American values are to be learned, life in the school should be governed by a constitution with a bill of rights applicable to everyone in the school.[8] All persons would then be presumed innocent unless proven guilty under due process procedures. Obviously, relationships between faculty and students would be different from present ones that are designed primarily to protect an imposed authority structure. As the child and the teacher and the principal try to make their constitution work, each would be learning how to apply constitutional principles to their daily life. An illustration may make the point:

> A sister and two brothers were involved in fights almost daily. The principal handled each fight as a new incident, assembled all parties to hear the evidence, interviewed witnesses (including teachers) in the presence of the accused, permitted cross-examinations, and rendered a decision. If punishment were indicated, he tried to suit it to the severity of the misdemeanor. Teachers began to handle fights in the same way. During the second year, the family was involved in far fewer fights, and a counselor at an outside agency commented on the girl's ability to resolve conflict situations. On one occasion in the third year, the younger brother initiated a fight in a classroom. Before a teacher could intervene, the sister separated the antagonists, interviewed them, talked with witnesses, and sent her brother back to his room with the admonishment that "You don't have a leg to stand on."

Such incidents arise every day and afford unmatched opportunities for teaching those behaviors essential for a self-disciplined social order. During such incidents the school can teach (and learn) about respect, authority, responsibility, freedom, prejudice, perception, "truth," evidence, decision making, problem solving, and conflict management—all of which are essential to successful life in nontotalitarian societies. Incidents such as the one related teach faculty and students alike to accept responsibility for their decisions and how to conduct themselves in a social order that maximally frees and protects everyone. The faculty views hallways and playgrounds as places where learning occurs, and wherever learning occurs is the legitimate concern of everyone. In such a school, relationships between faculty members and administration are governed by the same principles. As status barriers break down, communication increases, problems are shared, and feelings of involvement and belongingness increase, as do feelings of power and success. If a sense of community does not exist among teachers, it will not be transmitted to students.

After the school has become a unified and goal-directed organization, it may then find that its influence has already begun to infiltrate the streets. Its influence will increase if the school becomes an agency that fosters communication between itself and the homes surrounding it.

Interaction between the school and the community it serves * involves much more than usually transpires when a school opens its doors. The key difference arises from the recognition that *school-community contacts are an instructional and not a public relations function.* The educational school actively seeks out involvement with its environment. For example, parents are asked to inservice meetings to "tell it like it is" to a staff that recognizes the importance of knowing what parental attitudes really are. Teachers go into the community to learn more about life there and to become a part of it. School personnel participate in community groups and agencies. Such experience makes the school more a part of the community than it can possibly be if the faculty does not know the names of streets, let alone the major meeting places or the key people, in the school area.

A relationship that is indispensable to instruction derives from home visits. One staff listed ten positive outcomes from home visits,[9] among them:

- Home visits dispel myth, hearsay, and racial generalizations; they give the teacher an experiential knowledge of the child's environment.

* It should be observed that the community a school serves is a social and not a geographic entity; hence, though most schools presently serve children living in close proximity, the principles discussed here are not confined to a neighborhood, but may be widely dispersed, as may be the case in rural areas or in urban schools serving bused-in students.

• The teacher can help dispel negative feelings toward the school and teachers by exposing parents to a positive, concerned teacher. He becomes a person and often a friend and confidant when seen outside the school setting.

• Perhaps most important, home visits give the child a feeling that he and his family are important to the teacher. The child learns that his teacher and his parents share common goals for him and will work together toward achieving them.

When the visits become a matter of course and not a "tourist trip," they help to influence the school program and spread the school's influence into the streets.

The community can be truly welcomed into the school; indeed, parents and others can be given a partnership role in the school. Success in doing so is probably measured less by the number who come than by the feeling that anyone *may* come. It is imperative that such signs as *Visitors Must Report to the Office* no longer govern all who come to see a classroom or teacher. A helpful rule is always to assume that the visitor is where he is for a legitimate purpose and to treat him accordingly.

All these interactions help to make life within the community a part of the curriculum. There are many "field trips" within walking distance of any school, yet they are often ignored. A walking trip costs nothing and requires no red tape. As a focus of study, the ghetto becomes a different place for the child, a more important place. He learns more about himself, and he has things to teach his teacher. The whole curriculum can arise from what the child knows and help him get a new view of the life he leads. This is precisely what we advocate when we say we must "accept the learner" and "start where he is." The faculty that cannot walk the child's streets can never meet the challenge for a significant proportion of its pupils.[10]

Once communication has bridged the gulf between school and home, the school may become an important force for effecting communication among the homes. Fostering communication among residents can result in the development of norms that are reinforced between homes. Such norms stand some chance of being planted within each child so that he is more able to assess situations for himself and to exercise self-discipline—the only possible control over behavior in any complex social situation. Furthermore, a true community can control the negative forces within it; that control sets an example of control over environment, which

builds confidence and security in the child.

The school can also effect communication between the ghetto and the larger city, using the whole city as a text. Children from the ghetto can go into other parts of the city and suburbs to learn about other styles of life outside the narrow world they know. By going into these areas, the children also help others know about life in the ghetto, a part of America invisible to most suburbanites.

School personnel must be advocates for ghetto residents. In our society, few professionals speak for the poor. Teachers from schools serving the poor are seen in the larger city as "experts" on the problems of the area they serve. All too frequently these experts are neither knowledgeable nor sympathetic, and their reports support biases and stereotypes. When the school staff reports objectively on conditions in its area, it can have a positive effect on attitudes, policies, and procedures. Improved police relations, garbage collection, snow removal, utility repairs, and housing rehabilitation are more vital for improving the curriculum of the streets than any "times table" can ever be. If the staff is not prepared to play the role of advocate, it can never influence the interstices between school and home.

Where does the staff get time to do these things? The functions described are not *additions* to what teachers already do; they are a new set of activities that include many of the old ones, but not all of them. Consequently, some time may be gained by dropping relatively useless activities. Nevertheless, more time is needed to organize an effective school. The following ideas have guided procedures elsewhere, and may be useful for stimulating other ideas.

Much of the school day is taken up with nonproductive, ineffective activity whose major purpose is to provide inexpensive day care. We should admit this fact and strive to make some portion of the activity (as opposed to every single minute) educationally productive. Time and effort, then, can be reallocated creatively, putting more into some activities than others, thus directing adequate resources into the most desirable ones. Each productive moment is a net improvement over usual operations.

Every school has people on its staff who are not productive in what they are doing

or not happy in their assignment. They will often willingly take on new tasks that satisfy them and release teachers to do new things.

Specialists not assigned to classrooms can be organized in ways that release teachers to perform tasks free of children. Obviously, this works against integrating physical education, art, music, corrective reading, and so forth into regular instruction, but that doesn't often happen anyway.

Teacher aides, volunteers, and student teachers are seldom used as comprehensively as they could be to free teachers. A little creative thinking can open immense amounts of time for teachers.

Most neighborhoods are overrun with social agencies whose programs and personnel could be coordinated with the school to benefit school, agency, and clients. In this way, children would get better services and school staff could engage in necessary activity outside classrooms.

Many other variations are possible, but the creative staff must apply those that fit its particular circumstances. The basic rule, however, is that a staff will need a lot of time free of children if it is to educate children. Making decisions, diagnosing problems, working out solutions, visiting homes, working with individual children—all require time away from classroom obligations. Learning how to conduct creative learning experiences will take much time also. In the best of all worlds, the teachers' day, week, and year in school would be quite different from that scheduled for children. For example, if the child's day were from 9:00 a.m. to 12:00 noon and the teacher's day were from 8:30 a.m. to 5:00 p.m., with the afternoon hours filled with activities to create a truly educational school, a staff could guarantee better achievement *and* better education. Similarly, the staff that works for two or three weeks before children start school will be better prepared for a productive year.

People in our society are educated in three settings—the home, the community, and the school. If we would educate, we should view the problems of the ghetto as problems of society building. It seems useful to design school programs that will bring the norms of the home, the neighborhood, and the school into congruence.

When these three are in congruence, the child is rapidly and relatively easily educated. It is difficult to tell whether it is the middle class home, the middle class neighborhood with all of its control over the child in the interstices, or the school in that neighborhood that teaches a child to read, or to pay attention when someone else is speaking, or to discern the subtle meanings of televised discourse. It may even be argued that the middle class child could be educated without the school. But in the ghetto, it is clear that such results are extremely difficult to accomplish. So long as the home, the neighborhood, and the school are at odds in their purposes, the child will have to yield to the most pervasive force, and that force is generally the combination of pressures bearing on him in the streets, alleys, yards, and parks, as well as in the schools.

FOOTNOTES

1. Trevelyan, G. M. *History of England.* Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday, 1953. Vol. 1, pp. 192 and 212.

2. Rainwater, Lee, and Yancey, William L. *The Moynihan Report and the Politics of Controversy.* Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press, 1967.

3. Moore, William, Jr. *The Vertical Ghetto.* New York: Random House, 1969. See also Liebow, Elliot. *Tally's Corner.* Boston: Little, Brown, 1967.

4. The educational process suggested in the remainder of this article is like the "aggregation model" described generally in Janowitz, Morris. *Institution Building in Urban Education.* Hartford, Conn.: Russell Sage Foundation, 1969.

5. See the dilemmas posed by Trubowitz, Sidney. "A Day in the Life of a Ghetto School Principal." *National Elementary Principal* 51: 30-35; October 1971, and "Confessions of a Ghetto Administrator." *Phi Delta Kappan* 52: 210-13; December 1971.

6. Wayson, William W. "A New Kind of Principal." *National Elementary Principal* 50: 9-19; February 1971.

7. These ideas are not unlike those presented in 1932 by Waller, Willard. *Sociology of Teaching.* New York: Russell and Russell, reprinted 1961. Chap. 25. The entire book is most helpful for analyzing schools as they are. Additional ideas are available in Weinstein, Gerald, and Fantini, Mario D. *Toward Humanistic Education: A Curriculum of Affect.* New York: Praeger, 1970.

8. One such bill of rights is available in "Organizing Schools for Responsible Urban Education," a handbook for teachers at Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr., School, Syracuse, New York. The handbook was prepared under a 1969-70 grant from Title III, ESEA, to promote self-esteem among students.

9. These outcomes are listed in "Organizing Schools for Responsible Urban Education." (See footnote 8.)

10. Davis, Allison. "Cultural Factors in Remediation." *The Body of Knowledge Unique to the Profession of Education.* Washington, D.C.: Pi Lambda Theta, 1966. pp. 114-34. The first 12 pages are especially related to ways of influencing the interstices of ghetto areas.

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HOME VISITS*

Rationale

We believe that it is the duty and responsibility of every teacher to visit every student's home at least once during the school year. Teachers at Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. School and at other schools have found home visits an essential part of the instructional program. Here are some of the reasons for home visits:

If home visits are made early in the school year, the teacher establishes a friendship with parents before needing to consult them about behavioral or academic problems.

The teacher learns about special personality, mental, medical, and family situations from the parents and from observation in the home. The teacher may also discover that the student has needs which have not been noticed at school.

Home visits dispel myth, hearsay, and racial generalizations; they give the teacher an experiential knowledge of the student's environment.

Home visits provide an opportunity for the teacher to give positive evaluations as well as more negative ones.

The teacher can acquaint parents with his or her teaching philosophy and program and extend personal invitations to visit the classroom.

The teacher can dispel negative feelings toward the school teachers by exposing parents to a positive, concerned educator and can become a person and often a friend and confidante when seen outside the school setting.

Parents are recognized as valuable resources for chaperoning, teaching instructional ideas, and feedback.

Parents can often voice their concerns in their own homes where they feel more at ease and less vulnerable.

Home visits and resulting cooperation from parents can often eliminate or lessen a classroom management problem with a student who seemed "impossible" to control. So often teachers have found that an unruly child will begin to behave just as soon as it is realized that there is parent-teacher communication about his or her behavior.

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*from a Handbook for Teachers at Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. Elementary School, Syracuse, N.Y., 1969-1970.

Perhaps most important, home visits give the children the feeling that they and their families are important to the teacher. Students learn that teachers and parents share certain goals and will work together on them.

For all of these reasons and many more, home visits have become recognized as the most effective method of parent-teacher communication and as such are a necessary part of the teacher's responsibilities.

Suggestions for Teachers

The suggestions which follow are just that--suggestions. Some you may agree with--some you may not. They are merely ways of approaching parents and home visits which some teachers have found to be successful:

If possible, always call ahead to let a parent know you are coming. Don't rely on verbal or written messages traveling via child from school to home. Of course, if a crisis has arisen at school that requires parental attention, call or visit immediately or as soon as possible.

If both parents are in the home, try to set a time when you can visit with both parents together. Probably a weekend or evening appointment would be necessary.

Be as positive but as honest as you can; "Tell it like it is." Too often teachers say all during the year that a student is doing all right only to recommend retention at the end of the year. Set your goals and communicate them to the parents. Make it clear that a child who does not attain most of these goals cannot pass.

Once parents know what is expected of their son or daughter they are usually eager to help. Even for good students, help from home is valuable. Provide the parents or older brothers and sisters with materials and instructions.

First Visit

So you're making your first home visit! Nervous, huh? If you're really too shaky to make it alone, ask someone to go with you--preferably a teacher who already knows the family. Better yet, sit down with another teacher, go through your class list, and choose a family your helping teacher is familiar with. Don't be ashamed to ask for help--many of the "old pros" had another teacher with them on their first home visit.

If you're not nervous, great! There really is nothing to be afraid of. Be yourself. Let your personality shine through. Relax and converse with the parent as a friendly colleague. The parent is nervous, too; so help to relax him.

The first home visit can be a short one. After asking the above questions, the teacher could visit more informally for a little while and then leave. If you find yourself at a loss for conversation during the first meeting, perhaps these additional topics might be helpful:

How do your children feel about school? their teachers? other pupils?
Do they do homework assignments?
How many friends do they have? Where do they live? What are there names?
What do they do on rainy days or vacation days?
Do they go downtown by themselves?
Did you visit school last year for any reason?
Would you be interested in attending parents association meetings? What type of thing would you like the association to do?
What would the parent like the school to do for the child? for the neighborhood?
What do your children generally do after school?
How do your children get along with other children?
Do you like where you're living?

Ask parents how long they've lived in this city. If from elsewhere, whereabouts? Talk about yourself, where you come from, your concerns, your nervousness.

Ask parents if there is anything else you should know about their son or daughters. Any physical difficulties, etc.?

If you wish to at this time, communicate some of your goals to the parents and discuss them. Explain your marking system if other than the traditional A,B,C,D, etc. Open up your room for parent visits if you feel you are settled enough now that a parent coming into your room won't rattle your brains.

If you are planning a field trip, talk about that. Ask the parent if he or she could accompany the class and you on a trip.

These are just some of the many conversation topics possible. After the first several home visits, you probably will feel no need for this guide--then you'll know you're a veteran!

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